

THE
ANALYTICAL REVIEW.

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VOYAGES AND TRAVELS.

ART. I. *An authentic Account of an Embassy from the King of Great Britain to the Emperor of China; &c.* By Sir George Staunton, Bart.
[Concluded from p. 333.]

BEFORE we proceed in our account of this work, we must revert to the presentation of the ambassador and his suite to the emperor, just to remark, how strongly the despotic character of the asiatic princes is expressed by the abject homage which they expect, not only from their subjects, but from the ministers of other independent potentates. It was with difficulty that lord Macartney obtained permission to approach the emperor without paying the homage, expected from the subjects of the empire, of nine solemn prostrations of the body. In order to preserve the dignity of his royal master, he ingeniously proposed, that a subject of his imperial majesty, of rank equal to his own, should perform, before the picture he had with him of the king of England in his robes of state, the same ceremonies that the ambassador should be directed to perform before the chinese throne. This proposal was rejected with disdain; and it was not till after much deliberation, that the ambassador was permitted to approach the emperor with the same ceremony with which it was customary to approach his own sovereign. We have seen, however, that, this ceremony being performed, the embassy was very graciously received. One circumstance places the emperor in an amiable light, and must have been highly gratifying to the object of the emperor's condescension, who, we understand, though the author modestly concealed the name, was sir G. Staunton's son.

Vol. II, p. 234.—His imperial majesty, adverting to the inconvenience arising from the necessity of interpreting whatever was said, inquired whether any person of the embassy understood the chinese language; and being informed that the ambassador's page, a boy then in his thirteenth year, had alone made some proficiency in it, the emperor had the curiosity to have the youth brought up to the throne, and desired him to speak chinese. Either what he said, or his modest countenance, or manner, was so pleasing to his imperial

imperial majesty, that he took from his girdle a purse, hanging from it for holding areca nut, and presented it to him.

'Purses are the ribands of the chinese monarch, which he distributes as rewards of merit among his subjects; but his own purse was deemed a mark of personal favour, according to the ideas of eastern nations, among whom any thing worn by the person of the sovereign, is prized beyond all other gifts. It procured for the young favourite the notice and caresses of many of the mandarines, while others perhaps envied his good fortune. This imperial purse is not at all magnificent, being of plain yellow silk, with the figure of the five-clawed dragon, and some tartar characters worked into it.'

Accompanying the embassy in its route, we are brought back to Peking, where a few farther particulars were collected concerning the manners of the inhabitants. Opportunities occurred of observing the ingenuity of the chinese workmen.

P. 288.—'Two of them took down the two magnificent glass lustres sent as presents to the emperor, in order to place them in a more advantageous position. They separated them piece by piece, and put them again together in a short time without difficulty or mistake, the whole consisting of many thousand minute pieces, tho they had never seen any thing of the kind before. Another chinese cut a narrow slip from the edge of a curved plate of glass in order to supply the place of one belonging to the dome of the Planetarium, which had been broken in the carriage. The english mechanics belonging to the embassy had in vain attempted to cut the glass according to this curve line, with the assistance of a diamond. The native workman did not show his method; but it was said that he succeeded, by first drawing the point of a heated iron across the surface to be divided.'

The method of making gunpowder, and the art of printing, were discovered by the chinese long before they were known in Europe; but the use of gunpowder in fire-arms was unknown to them, and their method of printing differs essentially from that of the europeans.

P. 293.—'This consists in nothing more than in cutting, in relief, the forms of the written characters on some compact wood, daubing afterwards those characters with a black glutinous substance, and pressing upon them different sheets of paper (itself a previous and ingenious invention), each sheet taking thus an impression of the characters upon which it had been laid.'

P. 294.—'The paper used by the chinese for their publications, is too thin and weak to receive distinct impressions on both sides. The engraved board on which the paper is laid to take the impression on one side, generally contains the characters for two pages. The paper when printed off, is doubled together, the blank sides touching each other. The fold forms the outer edge, which thus is double, while all the single edges, contrary to the mode of european bookbinders, are stitched together and bound into a volume. After the edition is worked off, the plates or boards are collected together, and it is generally mentioned in the preface where they are deposited, in case a second edition should be called for.'

p. 296.—Gazettes are frequently published in Peking, under the authority of government. The various appointments throughout the empire, the favours granted by the emperor, all his public acts, his remission of taxes to districts suffering by dearth or other general calamity, his recompense of extraordinary services, the embassies sent, and the tribute paid, to him, form a considerable part of the public news. The domestic details of his household, or of his private life, are seldom, if ever, mentioned. Singular events, instances of longevity, sometimes the punishment of offences committed by mandarines, are there recorded. Even some instances of the adultery of women, which is a punishable, tho not a capital, offence, are occasionally published, perhaps, by way of deterring others from the commission of the like enormities. While China was at war, its victories, as well as the suppression of rebellions, were announced. In all other cases the world, in point of intelligence, is confined to China.

‘Beside the classic works of the chinese, of which the multiplication by printing is prodigious, the lighter literature of the country gives no inconsiderable occupation to the press. The *Orphan of China*, however improved in an english dress, by a very respectable dramatic poet, may be considered as no unfavourable specimen of chinese tragedy; and the *Pleasant History* of which an english translation, under the care of a learned and ingenious prelate, was published several years ago, is an instance of chinese novel writing, that is interesting and simple; and for serious readers, the zeal of christianity had induced the missionaries to procure the publication of several works in the chinese tongue, in proof of the tenets which they preached.’

On the subject of the religion of China, on which our voyagers have collected little new information, we meet with the following short but curious passage.

p. 304.—‘The temples of Peking are not equal to its palaces. The religion of the emperor is new in China, and its worship is performed with most magnificence in Tartary. The mandarines, the men of letters, from whom are selected the magistrates who govern the empire, and possess the upper ranks of life, venerate rather than they adore Confucius; and meet to honour and celebrate his memory in halls of a simple but neat construction. The numerous and lower classes of the people, are less able than inclined to contribute much towards the erection of large and costly edifices for public worship. Their religious attention is much engaged, besides, with their household gods. Every house has its altar and its deities. The books of their mythology contain representations of those who preside over their persons and properties, as well as over exterior objects likely to affect them. In the representation of *Lui-shin*, or spirit presiding over thunder, the violence of that meteor, which nothing is supposed capable of withstanding, the velocity of the lightning, which nothing can exceed, and their united effects, are designed by the monstrous figure involved in clouds, as engraved in the opposite page. His chin is terminated in the beak of an eagle, to express the devouring effects of thunder, as the wings do its swiftness. With one hand he grasps a thunderbolt, and in the other is held a

trancheon for striking the kettle-drums with which he is surrounded. The eagle's talons are sometimes represented as fixed upon the axis of a wheel, upon which, with aided velocity, he rolls among the clouds. In the original from whence the annexed figure has been taken, the dreadful effects of this terrific spirit beneath the clouds are pointed out by the appearance of animals struck dead, and lying prostrate on the ground, buildings overturned, and trees torn up by the roots.'

The embassy, notwithstanding the civility with which it was received, appears to have been throughout an object of jealousy to the court of China. While the english were in Peking they seem to have been little better than state prisoners; and the emperor intimated to the ambassador, after a short stay, his wish for his departure, by communicating to him, in form, his answer to the king's letter. The intimation was sufficient, and the ambassador hastened his departure. Under an imperial escort, they passed through the country, by Han-choo-foo, in their way to Canton. In their route they made further observations on the state of the country, and the manners and customs of the people, which will furnish a few entertaining extracts. Concerning their funerals we learn the following particulars.

P. 345.—'The first procession which was seen this day, was preceded by several performers on solemn music, then followed a variety of insignia, some of filken colours, and painted boards with devices and characters, displaying the rank and office of him who was no more. Immediately before the corpse, the male relations walked, each supported by friends, occupied in preventing them from giving way to the excesses and extravagance of grief, to which the appearance of their countenances implied that they were prone. Over the mourners were carried umbrellas with deep curtains hanging from the edges. Several persons were employed to burn circular pieces of paper, covered chiefly with tinfoil, as they passed by burying grounds and temples. These pieces in the popular opinion, like the coin to Charon for being conveyed to the elysian fields, are understood to be convertible in the next stage of existence, into the means of providing the necessaries of that new life. Notwithstanding the philosophical doctrines of the learned chinese, which exclude all notions unconsonant to reason, as well as the reality of all beings not referable to the senses; they often yield, in practice, to the current notions of the weak and vulgar. The people, among other superstitions, are particularly scrupulous about the time and place of burying their dead. The delay occasioned before those difficult points are ascertained, has often long detained the coffins of the rich from their last repository; many are seen in houses and gardens under temporary roofs to preserve them, in the mean time, from the weather; but necessity forces the poor to overcome many of their scruples in this respect, and to deposit at once, and with little ceremony, the remains of their relations in their final abode.'

The villagers are thus described:

P. 366.—'In passing by some villages, several women were seen at their doors with rocks and reels employed in spinning cotton. Some also assisted in the harvest, who were little to be distinguished from the men, by any delicacy of features or complexion. "The general

general character of the persons of those women," according to the observation of Mr. Hickey, who, in the course of his profession, had particularly studied the human form, "was the reverse of what is generally considered as elegant or beautiful. Their heads were large and round, and their stature low, apparently not above six lengths of the head. Their shape was wholly concealed from the neck downwards by loose dresses; they wore wide trousers from the waist to the small of the leg; and their feet and ankles were wrapped round with bandages." Those of a more elegant form were probably not employed in these rude labours. And a custom which is said to subsist in China, must render beauty rare in the lower classes of life. It is assured, that the young maidens distinguished by their faces or their figure, are taken or purchased from their parents at the age of fourteen, for the use of the powerful and opulent. Accident had thrown a few of these within view of the gentlemen of the embassy; who considered them, from the fairness and delicacy of their complexions, and the beauty and regularity of their features, as entitled to admiration. Some of those who did not appear indiscriminately abroad, but whom curiosity impelled to quit their houses to see the extraordinary strangers pass, were sometimes hooted back by chinese of the other sex, as if reproaching them for exposing themselves to the sight of the barbarians.

Mr. Hickey, to the circumstance of small eyes, attributed generally to the chinese of both sexes, adds, that "most of the men had blunt noses turned upwards, high cheek bones, and large lips, with complexions dark and muddy. Their hair was universally black, and so thick and strong that, comparatively, they liken the hair of europeans to the pile or fur of the smaller animals. The chinese often wear whiskers, and encourage the growth of a beard upon the chin, which is suffered to descend in straight lines."

At this season of harvest, an active cheerfulness seemed to pervade both sexes. They appeared to be sensible of labouring for their own profit. Many of the peasants are owners of the land they cultivate. There are no great and speculative farmers, aiming at monopoly or combination in the disposal of their produce, and overwhelming with their wealth the poorer husbandmen, till they reduce them at length to mere daily labourers. The advantages resulting from the neighbourhood of the river, become some consolation for the occasional oppression of mandarines, in forcing occasionally the peasants, at low rates, into the service of government, for the purpose of tracking upon its banks the public barges passing on it.

Concerning religion it is related:

P. 373.—No legal tax is imposed in China on the score of religion. Ceremonies are ordained by it, in the performance of which some time is necessarily consumed, and sacrifices are required, which occasion expence, on the new and full moon; and in spring and autumn; and likewise in the beginning of the year. On the latter occasion, particularly, much dissipation takes place. Some good also is effected. Acquaintances renew their suspended intercourse; friends offended are reconciled; every thing dates as from a new era. The poorest cottager looks forward and prepares, during the preceding months, for an interval, however brief, of enjoying life,

life, after having so long dragged on laboriously the burden of it; but, in the mean time, there are no fixed days or stated periods set apart to rest from labour. It must be concluded, that the habitual exertions of the people do not require relaxation frequently.

‘The chinese are, perhaps, upon an average, better able to support moderate labour with little intermission than many of the lower classes in Europe. They are bred in better and sounder habits; and continue longer under the direction of their parents. They are, for the most part, sober; they marry early; they are less exposed to the temptations of debauchery; they are less liable to contract diseases which corrupt the springs of life; their lives are more regular and uniform. It has been calculated, upon the authority of facts and observation, that notwithstanding the baneful luxuries in which the european rich indulge, and the disorders of repletion, inactivity, and vice, to which they are subject, the mean duration of their lives exceeds about ten years that of their inferiors, whom excessive fatigue had contributed to wear out before their time; whom poverty had deprived of the means of proportional comfort and subsistence; who are more exposed to the inclemencies of weather, and accidents of life; and less guarded against their effects, as well as more liable to disease, with less leisure or means for cure.

‘The chinese have no sunday, nor even such a division as a week. The temples are, however, open every day for the visits of devotees. Persons of that description have, from time to time, made grants, tho to no great amount, for the maintenance of their clergy; but no lands are subject to ecclesiastical tithes.’

An incident is related which seems to shew a deficiency of humanity in the chinese character.

P. 384.—‘Before the embassy had gone far from Lin-sin-choo, an affecting accident happened, of which it was innocently the cause. Several thousands of people had crowded down to the bank of the canal from the neighbouring towns or villages, to see the strangers pass. A great number of the former had taken their stations on some large barges that were drawn up by the side of the canal. The projecting stern of one of these being overloaded by the crowd, broke down, with the wreck of which, several individuals unfortunately fell into the canal. The struggles and shrieks of those who were unable to swim, loud and violent as they were, did not appear to disturb the attention of such of the spectators as were safe, from the passing spectacle; or to call any boats to the assistance of those who were in danger of being drowned. A single boat rowed towards the wreck, but seemed more eager to pick up the hat of one of the unfortunate wretches, who was thus in peril of becoming a victim to his curiosity, than to save the person of him who had worn it. However binding the ties, and warm the affections between kindred, are in China, sentiments of general humanity were not sufficiently awake in the breasts of the multitude then assembled, to create alarm, and absorb every other attention in the desire of procuring instantaneous assistance to the distressed; or to deter the most insensible from preferring, in so critical a moment, any paltry advantage to the preservation of a fellow creature.’

An account is given of a superstitious ceremony on crossing the Yellow-river.

p. 403.—‘ The amazing velocity with which the Yellow river runs at the place where the yachts and barges of the embassy were to cross it, rendered, according to the notions of the chinese crews, a sacrifice necessary to the spirit of the river, in order to ensure a safe passage over it. For this purpose, the master, surrounded by the crew of the yacht, assembled upon the fore-castle, and holding, as a victim, in his hand a cock, wrung off his head, which committing to the stream, he consecrated the vessel with the blood spouting from the body, by sprinkling it upon the deck, the masts, the anchor, and the doors of the apartments; and stuck upon them a few of the feathers of the bird. Several bowls of meat were then brought forward and ranged in a line across the deck. Before these were placed a cup of oil, one filled with tea, one with some ardent spirit, and a fourth with salt: The captain making at the time three profound inclinations of the body, with hands uplifted, and muttering a few words, as if of solicitation, to the deity. The loo or brazen drum was beaten in the mean time forcibly; lighted matches were held towards heaven; papers covered with tin or silver leaf, were burnt; and crackers fired off in great abundance, by the crew. The captain, afterwards, made libations to the river, by emptying into it from the vessel's prow, the several cups of liquids, and concluded with throwing in also that which held the salt. All the ceremonies being over, and the bowls of meat removed, the people feasted on it; and launched afterwards, with confidence, the yacht into the current. As soon as she had reached the opposite shore, the captain returned thanks to heaven, with three inclinations of the body.

‘ Beside the daily offering and adoration at the altar erected on the left, or honourable side of the cabin in every chinese vessel, the solemn sacrifices above described are made to obtain the benefit of a fair wind, or to avert any impending danger. The particular spot upon the fore-castle, where the principal ceremonies are performed, is not willingly suffered to be occupied or defiled by any person on board.’

The Yellow river flows with uncommon rapidity, and raises a vast quantity of mud of a yellowish tinge, whence it derives its name. It is computed that in every hour there is discharged from that river into the Yellow-Sea a volume of water equal to 2,563,000,000 gallons; and a quantity of mud equal to 2,000,000 of solid feet of earth. Of Sou-choo-foo, a town in the route of the embassy, the following particulars are given:

p. 428.—‘ Sou-choo-foo appears to be an uncommonly large and populous city. The houses were generally well built and handsomely decorated. The inhabitants, most of whom were clad in silk, appeared cheerful and prosperous; tho it was understood that they still regretted the removal of the court from Nan-kin, in their neighbourhood, which had formerly been the capital of the empire. Nothing, indeed, but very strong political considerations, could have induced the sovereign to prefer the northern regions of Pe-chee-lee, on the confines of Tartary, to this part of his dominions, on which all the advantages of climate, soil, and productions, have been

lavished by nature with an unsparing hand ; and where nature itself has been improved by industry and ingenuity. Sou-choo-foo has been termed by travellers the paradise of China. Among the natives it is a common saying, that " heaven is above them ; but on the earth they have Sou-choo-foo."

' The gentlemen of the embassy also thought the women of Sou-choo-foo handsomer, fairer, and dressed in a better taste, than most of those they had seen to the northward ; where the necessity of long toiling in the open air on a less fertile soil, and of sharing in the rudest labours with the men, the confined and homely fare which serves them for subsistence, and the little leisure left them for attending to their persons, may have contributed to darken their complexions, as well as to harden and disfigure many of their features, more than could be effected by the occasional rays of a more southern sun falling upon the females, at the distance of thirty degrees from the equator. The ladies of Sou-choo-foo are sometimes distinguished by a small cap on the forehead brought down to a peak between the eyebrows, made of black satin, and set with jewels. They likewise wear ear pendants of crystal or gold.'

We add the description of Han-choo-foo.

P. 439.— All the merchandize therefore brought by sea into the river from the southward, as well as whatever comes from the lakes and rivers of Che-kiang and Fo-chen, must be landed at this city, in their way to the northward : a circumstance which renders Han-choo-foo the general emporium for all articles that pass between the northern and southern provinces. Its population is indeed immense ; and is supposed to be not very much inferior to that of Pekin. It has, however, nothing grand in its appearance except its walls. The houses are low. None exceed two stories. The streets are narrow. They are paved with large smooth flags in the middle, and with small flat stones on each side. The chief streets consist entirely of shops and warehouses ; many not inferior to the most splendid of the kind in London. A brisk and extensive trade seems to be carried on in silks ; and not a little in furs and english broad cloths. It was difficult to pass along the streets, on account of the vast concourse of people, not assembled merely to see the strangers, or on any other public occasion ; but each individual going about his own concerns. In the shops, several men but no women attend behind the counters. The flowered and embroidered satins, and other branches in the manufacture of silk, every part of which is done by women, occupy vast numbers of them in Han-choo-foo. Most of the men were gaily dressed ; and appeared to be in comfortable circumstances.

' Dress is seldom altered in China from fancy or fashion : whatever is thought suitable to the condition of the wearer, or to the season of the year, continues generally, under similar circumstances, to be the same. Even among the ladies, there is little variety in their dresses, except, perhaps, in the disposition of the flowers or other ornaments of the head. They generally wear over a silk netting, which is in lieu of linen, a waistcoat and drawers of silk, trimmed or lined, in cold weather, with furs. Above this is worn a long satin robe, which is gracefully gathered round the waist, and confined with a sash. These different parts of their apparel are usually each

each of a different colour, in the selection and contrast of which, the wearers chiefly display their taste. Tho the ladies reckon corpulence a beauty in a man, they consider it as a palpable blemish in their own sex, and aim at preserving a slinness and delicacy of shape. They suffer their nails to grow, but reduce their eyebrows to an arched line.'

Some particulars concerning a plant, which furnishes part of the daily beverage of almost every englishman, may be thought interesting.

P. 404.—' Every information received concerning the tea plant concurred in affirming that its qualities depended both on the soil in which it grew, and the age at which the leaves were plucked off the tree, as well as upon the management of them afterwards. The largest and oldest leaves, which are the least esteemed, and destined for the use of the lowest classes of the people, are often exposed to sale with little previous manipulation, and still retaining that kind of vegetable taste which is common to most fresh plants, but which vanishes in a little time, whilst the more essential flavour, characteristic of each particular vegetable, remains long without diminution. The young leaves undergo no inconsiderable preparation before they are delivered to the purchaser. Every leaf passes through the fingers of a female, who rolls it up almost to the form it had assumed before it became expanded in the progress of its growth. It is afterwards placed upon thin plates of earthen ware or iron, made much thinner than can be executed by artists out of China. It is confidently said in the country, that no plates of copper are ever employed for that purpose. Indeed, scarcely any utensil used in China is of that metal, the chief application of which is for coin. The earthen or iron plates are placed over a charcoal fire, which draws all remaining moisture from the leaves, rendering them dry and crisp. The colour and astringency of green tea, is thought to be derived from the early period at which the leaves were plucked, and which, like unripe fruit, are generally green and acrid. The tea is packed in large chests lined with very thin plates of lead, and the dried leaves of some large vegetable. It is too true, that the tea is pressed down into those chests by the naked feet of chinese labourers, as grapes are pressed by the wooden shoes of european peasants; in which last case, the juices are purified by the subsequent fermentation. Notwithstanding this uncleanly operation of chinese packers, the upper ranks in China are as fond of tea as the people are, and particularly solicitous in their choice of it. That of a good quality is dearer in Pekin than in London. It is sometimes made up into balls, as has been already mentioned. A strong black extract also, is frequently made from it. Many virtues are attributed to tea, which is in universal use throughout the empire. The warm infusion of any aromatic herb is, no doubt, likely to be grateful to persons exhausted by fatigue, frequently occasioning a violent perspiration; as well as to stomachs labouring with indigestion. One of the best qualities, perhaps, of it is that the taste for it and the habit of drinking it, at all times lessens the relish for fermented and inebriating liquors. The poor infuse the same leaves several times over. This plant is cultivated in several of the provinces of China, but seldom
more

northerly than thirty degrees beyond the equator. It thrives best between that parallel and the line that separates the temperate from the torrid zone; tho it is to be found also in the chinese province of Yunnan, to the southward of it. Several specimens of the tea plant, and of others chiefly cultivated in China, were procured by the ambassador and sent to Bengal, in some parts of which his excellency had been informed, were districts adapted for their cultivation. Such immense quantities of tea are raised in China, that a sudden failure of a demand from Europe, would not be likely to occasion any material diminution of its price at the chinese markets; tho it might be attended with inconvenience to the particular cultivators who are in the habit now of supplying the Canton merchants with that article for exportation.'

The mildness of the chinese government may be inferred from the following account of it's capital punishments.

P. 490.—' It seldom happens that a capital sentence is inflicted without the confirmation of the emperor; but it takes place sometimes by order of the viceroy of the province in cases of emergency, such as rebellion or sedition. If the occasion will permit, criminals for execution are all transferred to Peking, where a revision of the sentence is had before the great tribunal allotted for that purpose; and the usages of the empire, which suppose the sovereign to be endowed with every principle of humanity, require that he should formally consult his council, to know whether he can, without danger to the state, avoid ordering the sentence to be executed.

' The execution of all capital criminals takes effect at the same time; and the number, seldom above two hundred, is very small for so vast and populous an empire. In most cases, indeed, fine and imprisonment, flagellation and exile are the usual inflictions, except in crimes against the state or emperor, or in cases of blood, which admit of no pardon or commutation; nor is there any distinction between murder and manslaughter. Theft is never punished with death; nor is robbery, unless the act be accompanied with personal injury and cruelty. The moderation of those punishments seems to imply the infrequency of the offence; and the fact is really so, except where famine rages, in which case no severity of punishment will prevent the commission of the crime.'

Farther traits of character are drawn in the following extract.

P. 512.—' At Chau-choo-foo, the commerce of two navigable rivers occasioned a concourse of male strangers. The frail females in the boats had not embraced this double occupation, after having quitted their parents, or on being abandoned by them on account of their misconduct; but the parents themselves, taking no other interest in the chastity of their daughters, than as it might contribute to an advantageous disposal of them to wealthy husbands, feel little reluctance, when no such prospect offers, to devote them to one employment, with a view to the profits of another. Women, especially in the lower walks of life, are bred with little other principle than that of implicit obedience to their fathers or their husbands. To them they are taught to refer the good or bad qualities of their actions, without any idea of virtue in the abstract. Nor do the men seem to value chastity, except what

what may tend to their own personal gratification. The case is probably somewhat otherwise in the upper classes of life in China. There is, in fact, a greater difference often between different ranks in the same country, than between the same ranks in different countries. The chinese women, of whatever condition in life, are, for the most part, deprived of the benefit of reading, or of acquiring knowledge by observation. Their ignorance, their inexperience, their retirement, their awe also of those whom they consider as their superiors, disqualify them, in great measure, from becoming the friends or habitual companions of the leisure of their husbands. Even a relish for their personal charms is subject gradually to diminish; and less horror is felt against unnatural practices, which, however they are, as well as all perverse and impure desires, justly reprobated by the chinese moralists, are seldom, if ever, punished by the law, at least when committed by the mandarines. Where the ladies never form a part of society with men, mutual improvement, or delicacy of taste and sentiment, the softness of address, the graces of elegant converse, the refinement and play of passions, cannot take place; and unguarded manners in the men are liable to degenerate into coarse pleasantries or broad allusions. The exterior demeanor of the chinese is, indeed, very ceremonious. It consists of various evolutions of the body, and inclinations of the head, in bending or stiffening the knee, and in joining and disengaging the hands; all which are considered as the perfection of good breeding and deportment; while the nations who are not expert in such discipline are thought to be little better than barbarians. When, however, those chinese ceremonies are once shewn off, the performers of them relapse into ease and familiarity. In their address to strangers, they are not restrained by any bashfulness; but present themselves with an easy confident air, as if they considered themselves as the superiors, and as if nothing in their manners or appearance could be deficient or inaccurate. This habit of confidence in themselves arose originally from a consciousness of surpassing their neighbours in merit of every kind.

The state of medical science and practice is low and empirical.

p. 536.—Many practitioners of physic take the advantage, as elsewhere, of the obscurity in which that art is involved, and of the ignorance and credulity of the people, to gain money by the sale of nostrums and secrets of their own. They distribute hand-bills, setting forth the efficacy of their medicines, with attested cures annexed to them. But it was reserved for the sect of Tao-tse, or disciples of Lao-koun, already mentioned, to arrogate boldly to themselves, the possession of a medical secret, "not to die." To those who had all the enjoyments of this life, there remained, unaccomplished, no other wish than that of remaining for ever in it. And accordingly several sovereigns of China have been known to cherish the idea of the possibility of such a medicine. They had put themselves, in full health, under the care of those religious empirics, and took large draughts of the boasted beverage of immortality. The composition did not consist of merely harm-

harmless ingredients; but, probably, of such extracts and proportions of the poppy, and of other substances and liquors, as, occasioning a temporary exaltation of the imagination, passed for an indication of its vivifying effects. Thus encouraged, they had recourse to frequent repetitions of the dose, which brought on quickly languor and debility of spirits; and the deluded patients often became victims to deceit and folly, in the flower of their age.

‘ There are in China no professors of the sciences connected with medicine. The human body is never, unless privately, dissected there. Books, indeed, with drawings of its internal structure, are sometimes published; but these are extremely imperfect; and consulted, perhaps, oftener to find out the name of the spirit under whose protection each particular part is placed, than for observing its form and situation.’

Of the population of China a very surprising, yet apparently authentic, account is given. r. 546.

‘ Chow-ta-Zhin, a man of business and precision, cautious in advancing facts, and proceeding generally upon official documents, delivered, at the request of the ambassador, a statement to him, taken from one of the public offices in the capital, and printed in the appendix to this work, of the inhabitants of the fifteen ancient provinces of China, to which is annexed for the reader’s information, the amount of square miles and of acres in each province. The extent of the provinces is ascertained by astronomical observations, as well as by admeasurement; and they are found to contain upwards of twelve hundred thousand square miles, or to be above eight times the size of France. The number of individuals is regularly taken in each division of a district by a tithing-man, or every tenth master of a family. Those returns are collected by officers resident so near as to be capable of correcting any gross mistake; and all the returns are lodged in the great register at Peking. Tho the general statement is strictly the result of those returns added to each other, which seem little liable to error, or, taken separately, to doubt; yet the amount of the whole [333000000] is so prodigious as to stagger belief. Even in calculations altogether certain, but immense in their results, such, for example, as the evaluation of the enormous bulk, or distance of the fixed stars, it requires a mind conversant in such subjects, or at least habituated to such assertions, to remove all doubt concerning them. After every reasonable allowance, however, for occasional mistakes, and partial exaggerations in the returns of Chinese population, the ultimate result exhibits to the mind a grand and curious spectacle of so large a proportion of the whole human race, connected together in one great system of polity, submitting quietly, and through so considerable an extent of country, to one great sovereign; and uniform in their laws, their manners, and their language; but differing essentially in each of these respects, from every other portion of mankind; and neither desirous of communicating with, nor forming any designs against, the rest of the world.

'No correct intelligence could be obtained as to the population of chinese Tartary. No chinese have gone beyond Zhe-hol, except a few officers sent on military duty, or persons banished there for life. The chinese still consider that country as foreign to them. Beyond Zhe-hol it is supposed to be very thinly peopled.'

Astronomical and mathematical knowledge is said to be extremely imperfect. The peculiar nature of their language and written characters is largely, but, we think, not very clearly described: we give a specimen. P. 574.

'A certain order or connexion is to be perceived in the arrangement of the written characters of the Chinese; as if it had been formed originally upon a system to take place at once, and not grown up, as other languages, by slow and distant intervals. Upwards of two hundred characters, generally consisting each of a few lines or strokes, are made to mark the principal objects of nature, somewhat in the manner of bishop Wilkins's divisions, in his ingenious book on the subject of universal language, or real character. These may be considered as the genera, or roots of language, in which every other word, or species, in a systematic sense, is referred to its proper genus. The heart is a genus, of which the representation of a curve line approaches somewhat to the form of the object; and the species referable to it include all the sentiments, passions, and affections, that agitate the human breast. Each species is accompanied by some mark denoting the genus, or heart. Under the genus "hand," are arranged most trades, and manual exercises. Under the genus "word," every sort of speech, study, writing, understanding, and debate. A horizontal line marks a unit; crossed by another line, it stands for ten, as it does in every nation which repeats the units after that number. The five elements of which the Chinese suppose all bodies in nature to be compounded, form so many genera, each of which comprehends a great number of species under it. As in every compound character, or species, the abridged mark of the genus is discernible by a student of that language, in a little time, he is enabled to consult the chinese dictionary, in which the compound characters, or species, are arranged under their proper genera. The characters of these genera are placed in the beginning of the dictionary, in an order, which, like that of the alphabet, is invariable, and soon becomes familiar to the learner. The species under each genus follow each other, according to the number of strokes of which each consists, independently of the one, or few, which serve to point out the genus. The species wanted is thus soon found out. Its meaning and pronunciation are given through other words in common use, the first of which denotes its signification, and the other its sound. When no one common word is found to render exactly the same sound, it is communicated by two words, with marks, to inform the enquirer that the consonant of the first word, and the vowel of the second, joined together, form the precise sound wanted.

'The

‘The composition of many of the chinese characters often displays considerable ingenuity ; and serves also to give an insight into the opinions and manners of the people. The character expressive of happiness, includes abridged marks of land, the source of their physical, and of children, that of their moral enjoyments. This character, embellished in a variety of ways, is hung up almost in every house. Sometimes written by the hand of the emperor, it is sent by him as a compliment, which is very highly prized ; and such as he was pleased to send to the ambassador.’

The account of the return of the embassy from Canton to Europe is very brief, and contains no particulars sufficiently curious to entice us to protract this article by further extracts.

On a general retrospect of this publication, though we acknowledge that it has afforded us much amusement and information, we find ourselves compelled to add, that it has not completely answered our expectations. In point of style, the work is in general written with sufficient perspicuity, but is not free from inaccuracies. Vulgarisms have sometimes been admitted : as, ‘Water-fowl are *plenty*,’—‘*Outside the shops* was displayed, &c.’ The same word is without meaning repeated in the following sentence : ‘The advantages resulting from the neighbourhood of the river become some consolation for the *occasional* oppression of mandarines, in forcing *occasionally* the peasants, at low rates, into the service of government.’ Words are sometimes affectedly used in an uncommon sense ; as, ‘the presence of foreigners did not prevent the usual *affluence* of devotees.’ We have often observed in the course of the work a laboured stiffness of expression, not consistent with elegance. With respect to the matter, we must remark, that it is, in some respects, redundant ; in others, deficient. We believe few readers will peruse the first volume, without wishing that the narrator had conducted them more expeditiously to the termination of the voyage, and been less circumstantial in his accounts of the passage, and of the places at which the ships called, which have been already so frequently described. Perhaps, too, some of the writer’s general observations on common topics might, without much diminution of the value of the work, have been spared, or at least curtailed. The long details which are given concerning the immediate cause of the voyage, the circumstances which had rendered the english suspected and unpopular in China, the obstacles which obstructed the success of the embassy, and the manner in which they were at last overcome, will by many, who are not immediately interested in the business, be thought tedious. These accounts might certainly have been, with advantage, brought into a narrower compass. On the other hand, we see much reason to regret, that the information which the embassy has collected, or *communicated*, on some important topics, is so slender. Concerning the population, the natural history, the agriculture, the arts and manufactures, the police, and the language of the country, and some other subjects, with some repetition, perhaps unavoidable, of things already known, many particulars, altogether new to europeans are related. But it must be regretted, that a more
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distinct and lively idea has not been communicated of the sentiments, dispositions, and characters of the people, by the free and familiar relation of *anecdotes*, which a residence of several months must have furnished; and still more, that so little pains seem to have been taken to obtain an insight into the nature and origin of the religious rites and ceremonies, and the philosophical systems and opinions, which have certainly subsisted with little alteration, among the Chinese from very remote ages. The long and intimate intercourse between the gentlemen of the embassy, and the ambassador's mandarin friends, Chow-ta-Zhin and Vanta-Zhin, who 'travelled with them for several months, during which time they lived together as familiarly as cordially,' must have afforded many opportunities of gathering information on these subjects, which would have been highly interesting to European philosophers. Though we think the work, either by greater diligence in collecting, or by greater freedom in communicating, might have been made more perfect; we, however, admit it to be a valuable addition to the public stock of materials, from which philosophy may deduce conclusions for the advancement of knowledge, and the melioration of human society; and, we trust, that this embassy will prepare the way for other similar expeditions, by which, not only the commercial interests of Great Britain may be benefited, but the general good of mankind may be promoted.

N. B. We learn that a new edition of the narrative, without the elegant plates, and vignettes, which accompanied the quarto edition, is just published in three volumes, 8vo. price one guinea in boards.

D. M.

HISTORY.

ART. II. *The New Annual Register, or General Repository of History, Politics, and Literature, for the Year 1796. To which is prefixed, the History of Knowledge, Learning, and Taste, in Great Britain, during the Commonwealth, and the Usurpation of Cromwell.* 8vo. About 800 pages. Price 9s. in boards. Robinsons. 1797.

At a period of so general defection from political purity, and the principles of independance, that many of those characters, whose patriotism was wont to be the subject of panegyric—ill-merited alas! now bend their slavish knee in contemptible obedience to the beck of a haughty minister, it gives us considerable pleasure, to remark the persevering and *consistent* labours of a society of gentlemen, who for a period of almost twenty years have annually recorded the history, politics, and literature, of their country, with an impartiality which entitles them to credit, mingled with an inculcation of such sentiments in favour of political and religious freedom, as gives them a just claim to the patronage of every friend to liberty.

No alteration has taken place in the conduct and principles of the *New Annual Register*, or has any in the plan of it. A considerable portion of the present volume is allotted to foreign, but

not at the expense of domestic history; and if we consider the intimate connection which subsists between the one and the other, and how much elucidation the latter receives from an extensive survey of the former, although our own concerns have indisputably the first claim to attention, that portion will not be considered as an unwelcome or unreasonable encroachment. For the sake of forming a connected narrative, this volume, after the preliminary 'history,' which is announced in the title page, 'of the state of knowledge, learning, and taste, during the commonwealth, and usurpation of Cromwell,' opens with a retrospect of political transactions from the commencement of the war. We cannot omit noticing, that the historian takes a decided part with France, against the american republic, concerning the origin of their dispute. We confess ourselves to have been all along somewhat suspicious of duplicity on the part of congress: although the letter, which was addressed to the late president of the United States by Mr. Paine, was coarse, vulgar, and abusive, we did not, in a fit of disgust, turn aside from the statement which it contained: the *secret* agency of Gouverneur Morris in London; the *intercepted* letter of president Washington to that gentleman; the infraction of the treaty on the part of America, which had been made by that republic with France in the year 1778, by a subsequent irreconcilable treaty concluded between Mr. Jay and the british cabinet; are circumstances which cannot be overlooked. But as it is the fashion to consider the american administration as immaculate, we shall offer our readers an extract from the Annual Register, sketching the causes of the discontents which arose between the two republics:

§. 192. of British and Foreign History.—'While France by the success of her arms was lessening the number of her enemies in Europe, she found her influence decreasing in the United States of America. Though little was to have been expected from national gratitude, it was supposed that national honour would have prevented the american government from seizing the opportunity when the french republic was struggling for her political existence, to throw itself into the arms of her most potent enemy. It was therefore with equal surprise and indignation that the french government heard of the conclusion of the treaty which was formed by Mr. Jay, between that country and England, the tenor of which was so evidently in opposition to treaties already existing between America and France, that it was concluded that an open breach between the two nations must have been the immediate consequence.

'For some time past, the conduct of the american administration towards the republic had been distant and ceremonious; nor did the recall and disgrace of M. Genet, the french ambassador, whose personal altercations with the president had led the french government to make this act of solemn reparation, effect any change in its favour. There is no doubt that the conduct of M. Genet was contrary to that spirit of moderation which a person in his official station ought to have observed; but the peculiar situation of the french republic should have led the american government to make great allowances, especially when the system of the *propagande*, which, it is said, was attempted to be introduced, by order of the committees

mittees of the revolutionary *regime*, into America, had been formally disclaimed by those who afterwards held the reins of power.

A momentary gleam of reconciliation had been thrown across this shade of discontent by the arrival of a new ambassador, Mr. Monroe, from America; whose political principles were known to be directly opposite to those of his predecessor, Mr. Morris: and the language of american fraternity and congratulation was once more heard at the bar of the national convention. But the negotiation for a treaty of commerce with England soon taught the french what value they had to affix to these new professions of national amity, and what confidence was to be reposed in the benevolence of a government, the standard of whose attachment, it was said, was to be known only by that of its avarice. The treaty itself was less heeded in France than the dispositions which led to its formation. It was observed, that certain articles in this treaty not only infringed on the treaty concluded between the United States and the french nation in 1778, but were direct violations of it. In that treaty, for instance, the United States formally guaranteed to the french their colonies in the West Indies, in case of attack: in the present, even supplies of provisions sent to those colonies are stated to be illegal commerce.

It was expected that a treaty so hostile to the interest of France, and so contrary even to that spirit of neutrality which it was the obvious interest of the american government to observe, would not have been sanctioned by the american legislature. Notwithstanding the predominancy of british influence in the senate, and the disfavour of the president towards french principles, were well understood to exist, yet it was supposed that the change which had taken place in the situation of France and that of Europe since the negotiation had been opened, would have led the american legislature to refuse its ratification. But although it was evident from the decision of the congress, what was the general sentiment in America respecting this treaty, the french government heard with indignation of this legalized preference shewn to the english interest.

An intercepted letter from the president of the United States, addressed to Mr. Morris, who was lately the american ambassador in France, and who then officiated as secret agent of the american government in London, had already discovered to the directory the hostile views of the government of the United States. This letter, dated from Philadelphia, the 22d december, 1795, was a detailed answer to various letters of Mr. Morris respecting the pending negotiation. The president complained highly of the haughty conduct of the english administration, and of the arbitrary measures which they had pursued, and which they were continuing to pursue, with respect to american navigation. He requested Mr. Morris to represent to the minister not only the injustice, but the impolicy of this conduct, particularly at a moment when it was so much the interest of England to conciliate the minds of the inhabitants of the United States to the acceptance of the treaty. He detailed the efforts he had made, and the difficulties he had undergone, to overcome the wayward disposition of his countrymen towards french

politics, the abettors of which were the chief opponents of the treaty in question, which, however, he said, had the approbation and sanction of the greater and more respectable part of the community. His main object, he observed, the only object which ought to be continually kept in view, was peace, which he was most anxious to preserve: and if America was happy enough to keep herself out of european quarrels, she might, from the increase of her trade, from securing the monopoly of being the carrier of the world, vie, in twenty years, with the most formidable powers of Europe.

' This letter, saved from the wreck of the Boston packet, which had foundered on the coast of France, was considered as decisive evidence of the dispositions of the american government towards the french republic; of the intrigues carried on with the english; and naturally awakened those feelings of resentment which arise from a sense of injury heightened by ingratitude; and excited also a desire of displaying that resentment. Various were the representations made to the executive power of France to calm the indignation which these provocations had roused. It was alleged on the one hand, that the attempts made by the late committees of government to revolutionize America, had not been forgotten; that the english party, taking advantage of the imprudence of the agents of the French republic, had acquired an undue preponderance in the councils of the executive power of the United States; that this alienation was only temporary, arising on the one hand from the dread of the english, on the other, from the powerless state of the french republic at that period; from whom they could, in case of need, hope for no assistance; that it was very probable the ratification of the treaty would be refused by the congress; and that the general dislike of the inhabitants of the United States to any serious connection with the english government, was a decided fact, whatever might be the disposition of the executive power; that a declaration of hostilities against the United States would be detrimental to the cause of the republic, by lessening the number of its friends; and that it was probable the ensuing election for the presidentship would produce such changes in american politics as might prove more beneficial to the interests of France than the most brilliant and decided success of her arms.

' These and other representations counteracted the effects of the discovery made by the president's letter. The directory determined on continuing the semblance of friendship with the United States, and contented itself with following the same conduct with respect to their vessels bound to England, as England had done, throughout the war, with respect to american vessels bound to France.' See also on this subject, page 271.

The state of affairs upon the Continent must, as usual, employ a large portion of the Foreign History. A detail of the various and vain conspiracies, which have taken place in France, for the subversion of it's infant republic, particularly those of Babœuf, and the jacobins at Grenelle, together with the operations of it's victorious armies, occupy, of necessity, a considerable space: to these is moreover added, a concise but interesting account of the political
and

and civil state of the clergy in France, at different periods of the revolution, and some curious facts are stated explanatory of the relative situation of the West India Islands with Great Britain.

The succeeding portion of the present volume is, as usual, occupied with the principal occurrences of the year 1796; with public papers; with extracts from various authors, on the several subjects of biography, national manners, classical and polite criticism, philosophical papers, antiquities, miscellanies, and poetry; to which is added a slight sketch of domestic and foreign literature.

ART. III. *Memoirs relating to the French Revolution.* By the Marquis de Bouillé. Translated from the French Manuscript. 8vo. 564 pages. Price 8s. in boards. Cadell and Davies. 1797.

THE name of this gentleman has been familiar to the english ear for a considerable time: his humanity towards a vanquished enemy during the american war, at which time he was a governor in the french West India islands, endeared him to all the generous and all the brave. The modesty of the marquis de Bouillé has prevented him from mentioning with particularity the compliment, which was paid to him in the year 1784 by the english West India merchants; he simply states, in the early part of the present volume, that on his arrival in this island he experienced a very favourable reception from his britannic majesty, and that from the planters and West India merchants he received a flattering testimony of their gratitude, for his behaviour to the inhabitants of the english colonies, which had been under the protection of the french king, during the war. The merchants presented him with a steel hilted sword, of exquisite workmanship, which, it has been said, was taken from his side by an english custom-house officer at Harwich, in consequence of an order from government for disarming the emigrants: this honourable memorial, however, was soon restored to him by an express order from London.

In these memoirs, which contain a variety of interesting matter, much of which, however, the english have been already made acquainted with by the various publications which have been presented to them on the subject of french affairs, the marquis traces, somewhat fancifully perhaps, the origin of the revolutionary principle, to the administration of the duke of Orleans during the minority of Lewis the fifteenth! 'The regent,' says our author, p. 10, 'whom this prince [Lewis the fourteenth] used to call a braggart of vice, by his licentious behaviour sowed the first seeds of corruption.' But what an inconsistent character must Lewis the fourteenth have been, to have bequeathed by his last will the regency of the kingdom, during the minority of his successor, to a council at the head of which presided the very man of whom he had thus contemptuously spoken; this very "braggart of vice," the duke of Orleans! That the private character of the duke of Orleans—who, by the by, was the first minister of

Lewis the fifteenth, and the duke of Bourbon Conde the second; so that our author is not strictly accurate in saying, that Cardinal de Fleuri was 'at the head of affairs during the *first* twenty years' of that prince's reign—that the private character of the duke of Orleans will not bear very rigid scrutiny, is certain: it is well known, that he fell a victim to his irregularities, and so far may be said to have sown 'the first seeds of corruption.' But perhaps the marquis de Bouillé is not entirely mistaken, in considering him as the germe from which the revolutionary principle first sprung; for in the course of his administration, or rather his regency, he restored the right which had been wrested from the parliament of remonstrating against the edicts of the crown, and he is said to have considerably disturbed the repose of many wealthy plunderers of the former reign. But whatever might be the remote causes of the french revolution, it is agreed on all hands, that the more immediate ones were the intolerable weight of accumulated taxes, the disordered state of the finances, and consequent depreciation of public credit, together with the insolence and corruption of a contemptible and beggarly nobility.

'There were in France,' says our author, p. 58, at the period of the convocation of the states general in 1788, 'nearly thirty thousand noble families; a number not to be wondered at, since four thousand civil offices either gave or transmitted nobility, and the king daily granted letters of noblesse, which had been lavished to such a degree in the succession war, that they were sold at two thousand crowns a-piece. Out of this great number there were about a thousand families whose origin was lost in the remote periods of the french monarchy: of these, scarcely two or three hundred had escaped indigence and misfortune. There were still to be met with at court names which brought to mind the memory of those great characters who had once rendered them illustrious, but the possessors seldom recalled the idea of their virtues. In the provinces, likewise, there existed families who still maintained their consequence, either by having preserved the possessions of their ancestors, or by having repaired the loss of fortune by plebeian alliances. The rest of this ancient nobility was languishing in poverty. It resembled those venerable oaks which, mutilated by time, present no other felicity than a naked trunk. No longer summoned for military service, or convoked either to the provincial states, or to those of the nation, the ancient constitution of this order was entirely lost. If honorary titles were borne by some old and illustrious families, they were likewise shared by a multitude of new nobles, who, by their riches, had acquired the right of assuming them arbitrarily. The greatest part of the large landed estates was become the property of financiers and merchants, or their descendants: the fiefs were principally in the hands of the burgesies of towns. In short, the nobility had nothing to distinguish them from the other class of citizens, but such favours as the court chose to confer upon them, and exemptions from taxes, less advantageous to themselves than burdensome to the state, and offensive to the people. Nothing

Nothing of their ancient dignity and consequence remained, except the hatred and jealousy to the commonalty.

'Such was the situation of the nobility of France at the epoch of which I am speaking; I must, however, except that of Bretagne, which, by means of its particular government, still preserved its honorary prerogatives.'

Perhaps the most interesting portion of this volume is that, which describes the affair at Nanci on the 31st of august, in the year 1790; we lament that the limitation of our Review should prohibit us from transcribing the very minute but necessary detail of that unfortunate event, which the marquis de Bouillé has given us, for the purpose of exonerating his character from the accusations, which have been heaped so heavily upon it. Although we cannot offer the pleadings of the marquis in his own words, however, we will do him all the justice in our power, by a concise statement of that memorable affair, which is supposed to have stained his humanity with so indelible a die. It is well known, that the Orleans faction had successfully infused a spirit of licentiousness and insubordination among the army; the soldiers in the garrison of Nanci, indeed, openly supported, says our author, by the jacobin club at Paris, were in the highest state of insurrection; they had sent deputies to different garrisons, inviting the soldiers to join them or follow their example. The national assembly foreseeing the dangerous consequence which would necessarily ensue, were not some vigorous and effective measures immediately adopted, passed a decree on the 16th, ordering the soldiers to return to their duty, and the inhabitants of Nanci to their obedience to the laws, under pain of being treated as rebels. Mr. de Malseigne, a general officer, was charged with the execution of this decree, and the marquis de Bouille with a commission to render him every assistance, and employ arms if the insurgents persisted in rebellion. Soon after the passing of this decree, the marquis, who had long been commandant of Metz and of the province des Evêchés, received an order from the king, to take under his command the troops of Lorraine, Alsace, Franche-Comté, and Champagne: these, united to the garrison of Metz, formed an army consisting of a hundred and ten battalions, and a hundred and four squadrons. Of the former, says the marquis, 'There were no more than twenty which I was certain would obey my orders, but of the hundred and four squadrons, there were at least sixty which preserved their fidelity to their sovereign, and of these, seven and twenty were hussars or germans.'

The insurrection of Nanci, in the mean time, became more alarming; the garrison was composed of four battalions of the king's regiment, accounted one of the best in France; of two battalions of Swiss; and the regiment of mestre de camp, which was cavalry; to these were joined five or six thousand men from the town and neighbourhood, who had opened the arsenals, whence they had taken five thousand musquets, had seized on the powder magazines, and loaded eighteen pieces of cannon, the fortifications of the town of Nanci, however, had long been in ruins. The soldiers had plundered the military chest; exacted money of

the constituted authorities under pain of hanging the municipal officers and commissioners for the department in case of refusal; and had actually imprisoned several of their officers, and among others, the general officer that commanded them. Such was the situation in which Mr. de Malseigne found Nanci: it is not to be wondered at, therefore, that the decree of the assembly should be treated with derision, and that the officer, who proclaimed it, was obliged to escape from an attempt to seize him, to Lunéville, where was a body of carbineers consisting of eight squadrons, who had hitherto conformed to military duty. The garrison at Nanci, enraged at the escape of Malseigne, proceeded in martial order to Lunéville, for the purpose of compelling the carbineers to deliver him into their hands: this outrage on the person of a brother officer, who had been expressly appointed by the national assembly to proclaim and enforce its decree, first prompted the marquis to assemble some troops and march against Nanci. The carbineers refused to deliver up Malseigne, and a slight engagement ensued between the two parties; the very next day, however, these fickle cowards arrested their general, and sent him under an escort to Nanci, where the soldiers of the garrison threw him into prison. Information of this latter circumstance decided the marquis to attempt a rescue, though under considerable apprehension of disobedience among his own troops. Independent of any motives of humanity, we may give the marquis credit for a strong disinclination to attack the town, if we consider, that the troops, which on the 30th and 31st he assembled at Fronard, about a league and a half from Nanci, consisted only of three thousand infantry and fourteen hundred cavalry, while the town of Nanci contained no less than ten thousand men in arms: with such unequal force, prudence and the principle of self-preservation would have suggested persuasion as preferable to hostility: it was necessary, however, to preserve an appearance of the most determined resolution in case of ineffectual negotiation. On the morning of the 30th a proclamation was introduced, therefore, into the town, commanding the people to conform to the decrees of the assembly, and deliver up the most factious of their chiefs: four and twenty hours were allowed them to prepare an answer. At half past eleven a deputation from the town arrived at Fronard to answer the proclamation; it consisted of members chosen by the people, and of soldiers from the different regiments, and was attended by the principal members of the municipality and department, who, under threat of massacre, were compelled to accompany it. Audience was given in a very large court-yard belonging to the house which the marquis occupied; he repeated what had been mentioned in the proclamation: p. 203. 'I told the soldiers, that I required the three regiments to leave the town, and submit to the decree of the assembly, by delivering up the ringleaders of the insurrection: to the members chosen by the people I said, that I first insisted on their delivering into my hands the two general officers whom they held in confinement; that they should then permit my troops to enter the town, should put into their hands the cannon they were in possession of, and should submit

submit to the orders of the constituted authorities: I assured them all, at the same time, that if they did not obey, I would execute the law with the greatest rigour, by employing the force which I had at my disposal.'

At the conclusion of this harangue, the municipal officers observed the most profound silence, but the deputies, with an insolent tone of voice, expressed their contempt of the orders, and proposed conditions themselves of such a nature, that it was with difficulty the marquis could prevent his own soldiers from rushing on the men and putting them to death on the spot. After the dismissal of this deputation, the marquis immediately began his march, which, however dangerous, seemed now to be inevitable: 'Such being my situation then,' says he, 'I blindly committed myself to fortune for success.' At half past two, and at about half a league from the town of Nanci, the marquis was met by another deputation, to whose proposals he gave the same answer as before. We cannot avoid observing here, that we think the marquis is guilty of an unpardonable omission, in not having stated at full length the terms of surrender, which each of these deputations proposed; the latter are of particular importance, because it is obvious, that they must have been of a more humble and conciliating nature than the former; otherwise the proposal of them would have been idle. The minute detail, which the marquis has given of this affair, was for the purpose of defending his character from the charge of rashness and inhumanity, by a too precipitate enforcement of the decree of the assembly; surely for the public to estimate his conduct, it is necessary, that they should be in possession, as well of the terms which were proposed to him, as of those which were proposed by him: they would then have had a better opportunity to judge of the unreasonableness of the former, than is afforded, either by the conduct of his soldiers, or the assertion of the marquis himself. Without insinuating any suspicion of the marquis's veracity, the *opinion* of the public might possibly have differed from his, in regard to what was reasonable or otherwise, and the trouble of procuring the particulars must have been trifling. But to proceed: an hour was granted to the last deputies for decision: this hour expired, and at four o'clock in the afternoon, the advanced guard of the marquis approached the gates of the town, which were defended by troops and armed inhabitants, with several pieces of cannon: within a few paces from one of these gates, a third deputation advanced from the town, who assured the marquis, that his orders should be instantly obeyed, that the regiments were already leaving the town and repairing to the place he had appointed, and that the two general officers would be immediately delivered up: accordingly, the head of the column into which the king's regiment was formed, filed off from the town; and the marquis was soon joined by the two generals, Malseigne and De Noue. In consequence of this pacific arrangement, the marquis had suspended the march of his troops, and waited only for the departure of the garrison, that he might take possession of it himself: and it was not unnatural, that he should applaud himself for having happily escaped from a situation so extraordinary

traordinary and so dangerous. It often happens, however, that the irritation of a populace is not to be controlled; such was, most unfortunately, the case at present. Several soldiers, who had not followed their colours, together with a party of the people, begun a quarrel with his advanced guard, while the marquis was conversing with the two general officers, and were preparing to fire on them with several pieces of heavy ordnance, loaden with grape shot, which they had placed in the entrance of the gate: p. 209. 'A young officer of the king's regiment, named Desilles, however, prevented them for some time; he placed himself before the mouth of a cannon, and when torn from thence, he leaped upon a four-and twenty pounder, and seating himself upon the touch-hole, was in that position massacred; the match was now applied to the cannon, and in an instant, fifty or sixty men of my van-guard,' says the marquis, 'lay dead; the rest, followed by the french grenadiers, advanced with fury to seize the cannon, took possession of the gate called Stainville, and entering the town, were in an instant assaulted with a shower of musket balls, proceeding from cellars, windows, and the roofs of the houses, without any enemy appearing.'

The marquis's astonishment on hearing the signal of battle, at the very instant of capitulation, can only be conceived: his troops were mown down in heaps, and were on the point of flying, when he ran to their head and succeeded in rallying them; the consequence was that a general and bloody engagement ensued! the detail of which it is unnecessary for us to state: suffice it to say, that the marquis had forty officers and about four hundred soldiers killed or wounded, that the insurgents were vanquished, a great number of them killed, twelve pieces of cannon taken from them, together with upwards of five hundred prisoners. The troops of the garrison, who had filed off from the town in consequence of the capitulation, thinking themselves betrayed, and that advantage had been taken of their absence to attack the town, re-entered Nanci at the beginning of the engagement to assist their comrades, who they thought had been cowardly and treacherously assaulted, but who, it seems, were themselves the cowards, and themselves the traitors. Fortunately, however, the officers of the king's regiment, who had been compelled by the soldiers to remain with them, persuaded the men to retire into the courtyard of their barracks, and wait on the defensive, till they were attacked: after the heat of the engagement was over, these latter offered to lay down their arms, which the marquis prevented, desiring them to march within one quarter of an hour, for a garrison at the distance of twenty leagues. 'What was very extraordinary,' says the marquis, 'these soldiers demanded of me an escort, though each of them had thirty rounds of cartridge, which I had not thought it adviseable to take from them, lest it should occasion some delay in their departure; at that time, the object of greatest importance.' By nine o'clock at night, the whole garrison had left the town, nor one single house of which was either pillaged or burnt, or a single inhabitant either killed or wounded,

wounded, but such as had taken arms, and the most perfect tranquillity was re-established.

We have given the more ample detail of this affair, because, as we before observed, the character of the marquis is considerably implicated in the decision which the public may form on it; and because he mentions in his introduction, that some english publications of considerable respectability have propagated calumnies, which, he says, were invented against him by the most furious jacobins. We are persuaded, that the candour and good sense of the marquis will anticipate any observations, which we might make in defence of the editors of those works, who, in spite of their utmost vigilance and attention, must occasionally be deceived as to the authenticity of their information: See the New Annual Register for 1791, p. 97, and the Monthly Magazine for October 1796, p. 727. In the latter publication, the marquis is accused of being the author of the king's flight: surely *this* is not to be wondered at—*this* calumny was not invented by the jacobins, since the marquis, in his letter to the national assembly, written on his arrival at Luxembourg immediately after the failure of the flight, expressly accuses himself as the person who persuaded the king into the measures he adopted: true, the object of this letter does the highest honour to the marquis: 'it was intended,' says he, 'for no other purpose than to turn upon myself that torrent of popular fury, which I feared might prove fatal to the king and royal family.' He certainly was not the *author* of the king's flight, because when the project was first communicated to him, he instantly saw, with that ready penetration and sagacity, which seldom deserted him, the very doubtful success of the measure, and the inevitable ruin, both to the sovereign and the monarchy, which a failure would produce. But if he was not the author of this flight, he was the sole conductor of it; and surely it is idle to consider an accusation of this sort as calumnious, when the marquis was the first and most active agent in foreign courts, for raising a combined army: when he either had recourse to personal interview or epistolary correspondence, both with the emperor of Germany, the king of Sweden, the empress of Russia, and the king of Prussia: when he actually attended at Pilnitz, in 1791, laid down plans of operation for the combined armies of Austria, Prussia, and the Empire, and gave to the duke of Brunswick, that which he adopted—most happily with discomfiture and disgrace, for the invasion of his country!

The sketches which the marquis de Bouillé has given us of some few of the characters, which acted so conspicuous a part in the early period of the revolution, are very similar to those which were drawn by Mr. Bertrand de Moleville, in his 'Private Memoirs, &c.' Maurepas is the same weak superannuated minister, and Neckar equally vain and obstinate; this latter gentleman, however, is given credit for more purity of principle by our author, than he is by Mr. Moleville; and it is a duty owing to the financier, that the following anecdote should be made as public as possible: when in the year 1788, the states general were to be convened at Versailles, p. 83. 'he was advised by several of
his

his friends to make use of his influence in the elections, in order that government might have some partisans in the assembly of the states: this he rejected,' says the marquis, '*from the immorality of such a step*: for the same reason he declined listening to a proposal made him a short time after, of gaining over some of the most virulent members of that assembly.' If we remember right, it was *binted* by Mr. Moleville, that Mirabeau was bought over by the king; it seems, that he had a monthly allowance of 50,000 livres, and had received from his majesty the sum of 600,000, and promises of considerable magnitude in case of any signal services. The plan which Mirabeau had laid for the restoration of royal authority was well digested, and would probably have been attended with considerable efficacy in it's execution, had not the death of that extraordinary character occurred at so critical a period.

During the perusal of this volume we felt considerably hurt at the contemptuous manner in which La Fayette is treated: the marquis considered himself as looked upon by that general with a degree of suspicion, of which he has given us no sort of proof, but which he must have known himself most richly to have deserved. The marquis acknowledges himself to have detested the constitution, at the time when he swore to support it: and from his own confession also, (see p. 291) he took a solemn oath before the Almighty—in compliment to the king! and without any intention of keeping it one moment longer than his majesty! Conscious of an insincerity, to which in our estimation was attached no common guilt, it is but natural, that he should regard every one as the spy and suspecter of his conduct. To be haunted by suspicion, is the wise and salutary punishment, inflicted by the GOD OF TRUTH on such as meditate the slightest profanation of his sacred altar. The marquis acknowledges, that he thought it necessary to *temporize* with La Fayette, (see p. 122) who returned his unmanly duplicity with a degree of frankness and generosity, which ought to have suffused his cheek with a blush of the deepest shame and abasement. After the king's capture at Varennes, however, the overwhelming generosity of La Fayette to the marquis has extorted from the latter a more favourable judgment of his relation, whom, it is but justice to add, he considers throughout, to have been *led away*, rather by ambition than by vice, and whose ardent love of liberty, he excuses, forsooth! as the consequence of his american education. The marquis laments his confinement in the castle of Olmutz, but sarcastically adds, that he hopes it will cure him of his revolutionary phrenzy. We communicate no intelligence to our readers, in saying, that the unfortunate Fayette has since been released from his dungeon.

It is necessary for us to conclude: this article has already been extended to a considerable length, but the subject of it was too interesting to be passed over in a hasty or superficial manner. The only general observation we shall make is, that the marquis has written his memoirs, with a simplicity which is highly agreeable, and with an unreserved communication respecting his own actions, and the motives of them, which does him great honour:

he,

he, no doubt, thought his conduct morally justifiable in many instances, where we should be disposed to differ from him: but whenever in his own opinion it was censurable, himself is the first to acknowledge it: 'I by no means,' says he, 'wish to excuse my political conduct, in which will certainly be discovered many errors, the effect of false calculations and imprudent steps, and not unfrequently, of a warm temper, and prepossessions not sufficiently restrained.' The marquis has now retired from the din of battle, and contemplates, with philosophic serenity, the vanity of martial glory! Did our statesmen and generals once taste the sweets of contemplative retirement, war, surely, and its train of desolation, would soon be unknown to us, and we might yet hope to see those halcyon days, when every man shall eat

"Under his own vine what he planteth, and sing
The merry songs of PEACE to all his neighbours."

This volume contains some account of Gustavus, the late king of Sweden, together with many interesting particulars of the conspiracy by which he lost his life.

L. M. S.

ART. IV. *Campagne du General Buonaparte en Italie, &c.*—General Buonaparte's Campaign in Italy, during the 17th and 18th Years of the French Republic. By a General Officer. 8vo. 379 pages. Price 6s. Printed at Paris, and reprinted at London, by De Boffe. 1797.

It was formerly the boast of one of our own great statesmen, that he had conquered America in Germany; and the french of the present day may vaunt, with equal justice, that they have overcome Germany in Italy. The volume now before us contains the exploits of a corsican, who has raised his name from obscurity, by a series of brilliant actions, and who bids fair, to rival the most celebrated chiefs of antiquity. To his army, too, much praise is assuredly due, as it's achievements in favour of the republic equal, if they do not far surpass, the most fortunate days of the monarchy.

The author begins by stating the situation of Italy, previous to the irruption of the modern gauls into that country. The timid and irresolute solicitations of a few enlightened italians invoked the french republicans to cross the Alps, at a moment when nearly all the governments in the neighbourhood conspired to shut up the passages that led to them. The pretended neutrality of Genoa and Venice was nothing more than an instance of that feebleness, which is afraid of action: the aristocracy of their senates was still more averse to the french principles, than the cabinets of the monarchs. Tuscany was not actuated by nobler motives, or evinced a greater degree of sincerity; it's equivocal conduct was produced by the hope of becoming, for a moment, the centre of the commerce of Italy. All the other powers had openly joined the coalition, and presented an imposing mass of strength. Affairs were in this state when the campaign opened, and here follows a calculation of the forces with which the invaders had to contend:

Austrians, at this period, are estimated at - - - 80,000

Army of the line belonging to the king of Sardinia 60,000

Armed

Armed militia in actual service	-	-	-	30,000
The pope had assembled	-	-	-	30,000
The king of Naples could command	-	-	-	80,000

An armed force of 280,000 was thus prepared to repel the aggression of the republicans.

‘ Fresh obstacles awaited them on the other side of the mountains: the heat and infalubrity of a climate, which had been so often fatal to them; the opposition and arts of the clergy, at once numerous, and powerful by their influence over a people disgraced by superstition; a body too, which had ample time and opportunity to prepossess their adherents against the french, and more especially against their opinions, which were still more redoubtable than their arms. It was necessary, therefore, that the new Brennus should be equally politic, sage, and valorous. It was necessary, he should know how to vanquish and to pardon; that he should intoxicate his troops with glory, and, at the same time, defend Italy from the avidity of an army condemned, during two whole years, to the most disagreeable privations. France stood in need of another Cæsar, and she found him in a young officer of artillery, who was only twenty eight years old.’

We are assured, that the army of Italy, at this period, did not exceed 56,000, and that it was nearly destitute of provision, &c. An ordinary man would have been confounded; Buonaparte, on the other hand, was accustomed to exclaim, ‘ if we should be vanquished I have too much; if we prove victorious, we shall not have occasion for any thing.’

The austrians and piedmontese occupied all the passes, and the commanding eminences of the Alps, which protected the country in the neighbourhood of Genoa; while the genoese, jealous of the neighbourhood of the french, fortified themselves on the side of Voltri; they allowed the austrian troops, commanded by Beaulieu, to pass freely through Novi, Gavi, and the Bochetta, under the cannon of nearly inexpugnable posts, and contented themselves with vain protestations against that violation of their territory, which they thus openly permitted.

The campaign commenced by the attack of Voltri on the 20th of germinal; general Cervoni defended it with great obstinacy during the whole day, and executed a skilful retreat in the night, in the course of which he was protected by 1500 men posted, by Buonaparte, in the avenues of Sospello, and the heights of Virraggio. On the 21st Beaulieu attacked the french again, and after carrying every thing before him, appeared at the last redoubt, which was valiantly defended by *chef-de-brigade* Rampon, who, in the midst of a severe fire, made his troops take an oath, that they would rather die in their entrenchments than surrender them to the enemy. This produced the battle of Montenotte, which, however, did not prove decisive, as the austrians, although beaten, found means to seize on a new position. The battle of Millesimo, fought on the 24th, was more important, as it furnished the republicans with provision, ammunition, and whatever was wanting to procure new successes. Beaulieu, however, two days after, by means of a bold and hardy movement, found means to beat up the quarters of the victorious army. It was on

on this occasion, that general Cause, who was mortally wounded, seeing Buonaparte approach, lifted up his head, and on learning that Dego was on the point of being retaken exclaimed, 'Long live the republic! I die content.'

The combat at Vico, and the battle of Mendovi, proved fatal to the power of Sardinia, for, from that moment, the king was under the necessity of either shutting himself up in his capital, where he would have experienced all the horrors of a siege, or of throwing himself on the clemency of the victor. He preferred the latter, and his son has since become the ally of the republic.

In the mean time the austrians had fled towards Alexandria, which, we are told, Beaulieu, 'notwithstanding the intimate connection between his sovereign and the king of Sardinia, evinced a disposition to seize.'

'Thus,' says the author, 'in less than a decade and a half, Buonaparte had overcome two armies, and detached, from the coalition against France, one of the kings, who was the first and most ardent to unite with her enemies; a prince, whose court had become the asylum of the brothers of Lewis XVI, and the focus of the intrigues of the emigrants; a prince, who had formerly beheld his troops in Toulon, and in the midst of that very province which he had flattered himself to incorporate, as well as Dauphiny and the Lyonnais, with his hereditary dominions: this prince, to whom Pitt had been prodigal of gold, and who had been promised a vast aggrandisement by the treaties of Pavia and Pilnitz, suffered, during his old age, for the temerity of his ambition, by the loss of more than one half of his territories, and could not flatter himself to be able to retain the remainder, except as a monument of the generosity of the conquerors.'

The passage of the Po, the engagement at Fombio, the battle of Lodi, and the capture of Pavia, with the bulk of the magazines appertaining to the imperial army, completed the conquest of Lombardy; for although the castle of Milan still held out, the three-coloured ensigns were displayed from the extremity of the lake of Coma, and the frontiers of the country of the Grisons, to the gates of Parma.

While the directory was celebrating the exploits of the army of Italy by a festival in honour of the victors, Buonaparte was preparing for the attack of the castle of Milan, the annihilation of the remains of the austrian army, and the invasion of the territories of Rome and Naples. He had, at the same time, to repress the insurrections of many of the italian cities, the inhabitants of which had been induced to revolt by their priests; to grant his protection to several of the petty princes, who sued for grace; and to chastise the venetians.

'On the 13th of prairial, the division under general Massena took possession of Verona. That place, but a few days before, had been the asylum of Lewis-Stanislaus, brother to the last king of France, and his little court of emigrants, to whom the venetians had not only afforded a retreat, but protection and encouragement. Their generosity, however, soon gave way to their fears, and the senate of Venice, with a shameful policy, had already determined to transfer to the victorious Buonaparte all the regard it had formerly displayed towards the majesty of the king of Verona. The *podestat* accordingly

cordingly received orders to declare to this fugitive prince, that it was necessary for him to leave it's territories; although, when France had formerly thought proper to complain of this reception, the senate had answered, that Lewis, being a noble venetian, in that quality had a legal title to inhabit the dominions of the state: but the republican legions had not at that time crossed the mountains. By way of reply to this embassy of the *podestat*, the *pretender* is said to have demanded, that the golden book, containing the list of the nobles, should be sent him, in order to erase the name of his family; and he at the same time required the sword, which his ancestor, Henry iv, had presented to the republic. The magistrate, without any respect to the misfortunes and past grandeur of the *pretender*, replied, that the senate, on his demand, would make no scruple to grant the exclusion of his name; and as to the sword, it should be instantly restored, provided he would pay the sum of twelve millions of livres, still due by this same Henry:—an answer, indecent on the part of the government of which he was the organ, and only worthy of a pawnbroker.'

The surrender of the castle of Milan was announced to Buonaparte, at the close of an entertainment given by the grand duke of Tuscany, whose *compliments* on this occasion induce the author to remark, that dissimulation forms part of the education of princes. Salicetti, who passed through Florence two days after this event, was also invited to partake of a banquet at the ducal palace; but this commissioner, who had voted for the death of Lewis xvi, with a delicacy that does him great honour, spared the nephew of the deceased monarch the mortification of entertaining one of his judges. The pope, about the same time, was obliged to open the gates of the castles of St. Angelo and St. Leon; and also to liberate from the galleys a number of persons, whom he had imprisoned on account of their political sentiments.

At length Mantua, the only strong place belonging to the emperor in Italy, was invested; and notwithstanding the gallant resistance of Wurmser, who had thrown himself into it, was forced to capitulate after an obstinate siege.

It is thus that the author thinks proper to allude to the merits, and reward of the french general:

'Such unexpected exploits demand extraordinary recompenses. Hannibal did not achieve so much in Italy, as Buonaparte has done; Scipio did not surpass him in Africa, and yet grateful Rome honoured him with the name of the african. Spain decorated her chiefs with glorious surnames; it is thus she has conferred that of peace on the minister who signed the pacification, France has so lately consented to grant her. Russia has not forgotten a similar recompense to the conqueror of the Crimea. This is truly a republican coin, for Rome made use of it during her best days, and it will cause all the ribands and toys of the monarchy to be forgotten. The frenchman, who, after a campaign of eight months, forced the *king of the Alps* to resign the keys of them for ever; the king of the two Sicilies to consent to a peace so necessary to him; the dukes of Parma, and Modena—the one to pay a tribute, and the other to forsake his dominions; the frenchman, who has shut all the ports of
Italy,

Italy against the english, pallied their fleet in the Mediterranean, and reconquered Corsica without a blow; the frenchman, who has snatched all it's italian states from the haughty house of Austria; who has made five imperial armies, and the superb Mantua, bend beneath the three-coloured ensigns; the frenchman, who will strip papal Rome of those trophies, with which the republican romans had ornamented it, and present to France, alone worthy of possessing them, those masterpieces of art, produced by the genius of free Greece; this frenchman (let us at least hope it!) who shall destroy, in sacerdotal Rome, the focus of our civil discord, and whose uninterrupted triumphs promise us peace abroad and at home, surely merits the surname of *the italian*, and the legislative body ought to pass so honourable a decree.'

This volume is interesting on account of the subject of which it treats, but it is destitute of arrangement, and contains but little original matter. s.

BIOGRAPHY.

ART. V. *Memoirs of the Right Honourable Edmund Burke; or, an impartial Review of his private Life, his public Conduct, his Speeches in Parliament, and the different Productions of his Pen, whether Political or Literary: interspersed with a Variety of curious Anecdotes and Extracts from his secret Correspondence with some of the most distinguished Characters in Europe.* By Charles McCormick, LL. B. 4to. 385 p. Pr. 18s. in bds. Printed for the Author, No 168, Piccadilly..

WE learn from this work, that Mr. Burke was born near the town of Carlow, in Ireland, A. D. 1729; his father was an attorney, and not in affluent circumstances. Early in life he was placed under the care of Mr. Shuckleton, a learned and amiable quaker, from whom he received the first rudiments of the most liberal education. His tutor early discovered the promise of eminence and distinction in his eager pupil, but was mortified to find indications of an overbearing and intolerant spirit. At the age of sixteen he removed to Trinity-college, Dublin, where, in the second year of his residence, he obtained a scholarship. In 1749, immediately after he had taken his first degree, he came over to London, and entered himself a member of the society of the Middle Temple, intending, in due time, to be called to the bar.

He was here taken very ill, and having called in Dr. Nugent, for his advice, that benevolent physician removed him to his own house, where he met every attention that his situation required, and where he soon recovered his wonted health. This circumstance led to his acquaintance with miss Nugent, the doctor's daughter, who afterwards became his wife.

Mr. Burke now published his *Vindication of Natural Society*, with the view of exposing the philosophy of lord Bolingbroke; an admirable performance, fraught with knowledge, and adorned with eloquence, superiour to that, which he aspired to imitate; but which met no ardent or even favourable reception from the public.

Mr,

Mr. Burke, too confident in his own matchless powers, to be discouraged by the inattention and disregard of the public, in the same year published his celebrated *Treatise on the Sublime and Beautiful*. This splendid production of genius excited early attention, and made the name of Burke familiar amongst all literary men. The historians Hume and Robertson were now rising into notice, and Mr. Burke, eminently qualified for historical research, as his "*Vindication of Natural Society*" had evinced, formed the plan of writing some historical performance; he laid his plan before Doddsley, and the result was "the *Annual Register* for the year 1758." Mr. Burke continued to furnish "the *History of Europe*" for this celebrated work, from this time to the year 1789, when it was committed to less able hands. The bookseller, who is now the proprietor of the copy-right of this work, would, perhaps, find his account, in selecting the *History of Europe* from 1758 to 1789, and publishing it under the name of the real writer of that very interesting and important article.

Until the year 1761, Mr. Burke had no connection with public men. In that year he accompanied Mr. Hamilton to Ireland, to whom he rendered very important services, and by whom he was rewarded, by having a pension procured for him of 300 l. a year on the Irish establishment. In the year 1764, we find him in no public employment, but eager in literary pursuits, and passing the leisure hour with a club of wits, whose writings shed a lustre on our age and country. Though the brightest star in this glorious constellation, the moments which Mr. Burke passed in the company of Sir Joshua Reynolds, Dr. Johnson, Mr. Beauchamp, and Dr. Goldsmith, could not be lost.

In the year 1765 he was introduced to Lord Rockingham, upon his being appointed first lord of the treasury, in the capacity of the marquis's private secretary. Lord Verney now caused him to be chosen representative for the borough of Wendover, and thus commenced the parliamentary career of the greatest orator that ever spoke in this national council. Mr. Burke now obtained profitable employments for his near relations, and Lord Rockingham advanced him upon bond (which was afterwards cancelled and the money became a gift) the sum of 23,000 l.

With this money Mr. Burke bought the estate at Beaconsfield, and entered upon a plan of expensive living, which undermined his independence, and laid the foundation of all the errors of his after life.

This ministry, however, soon expired, and Mr. Burke became the leading opponent of the succeeding ministry. His memorable speeches on the taxation of America, then become the subject of awful discussion, made his name resound through the universe, as the friend of mankind, wielding the thunder of Heaven, and directing it against the oppressors of his species. When, after this, the nation was agitated by the proceedings against Wilkes, Burke defended the cause of freedom, and the liberty of the press.

In the year 1766, he published "a short Account of a late short Administration," written in a style of captivating simplicity, of which Mr. Burke, on various occasions, has shown himself eminently capable. He also wrote some familiar droll papers, in the newspapers, on public affairs, with great effect. Such were the various powers of this wonderful

derful man, that he was equally capable of amusing in the nursery and convulsing the senate.

In the year 1769, he published another pamphlet, entitled "*Observations*," which was intended to expose the then ministry.

In this year the royal academy was opened, sir Joshua Reynolds was appointed president; and *Mr. Burke wrote that address*, which made the name of the amiable president so celebrated.

Every one of these addresses, which have so much delighted the artists of Europe, *were written by Mr. Burke*, from hints furnished him by sir Joshua. For this service Mr. Burke was known to receive 4000 l.; and it is probable he received much more, for sir Joshua was ambitious of literary fame, and he long made more than 6000 l. a year by his profession. Sir Joshua's sight grew dim, and the necessity of a fair copy being made out for him, not being able to read Mr. Burke's crowded page, led to this discovery.

Mr. Burke now published "*Thoughts on the Causes of the present Discontents*," a pamphlet to the eloquence of which nothing can be added.

In the year 1773, the dissenters applied to parliament for relief, and then found in Mr. Burke an able defender of toleration and religious liberty! They have not always been so fortunate.

It is remarkable, that for many years, indeed through the greatest part of Mr. Burke's political life, his splendid eloquence in the senate made no impression on the dead majorities of ministers.

When the opposition found all their efforts ineffectual, during the american war, they meditated a secession from parliament, and Mr. Burke wrote their address to the king on this memorable occasion. It is replete with eloquence and philosophical reasoning.

Mr. Hastings became the enemy of lord Pigot, who was Mr. Burke's friend; and Mr. Hastings also slighted Mr. W. Burke, who went out to Madras in the year 1777: these two circumstances are said to have laid the foundation of a subsequent impeachment.

It is worthy of remark, that, in the year 1777, the son of Mr. Burke, himself a man of superior talents, became a candidate for a prize in the university of Oxford, offered for the best english essay, "*on the origin and use of printing*." The father furnished many remarks, and the son bore away the dissertation assured of success. But no. Burke could make the essay inimitable, but he could not give taste and judgment to those who were to decide upon it's merits. The prize was adjudged to another candidate, and thus Mr. Burke was mortified by men whom he would have disdained to exalt by the slightest of his regards. Here slighted excellence may meet consolation. It may, perhaps, yet be inquired, who were the judges of the merit of the Burkes? They are, perhaps, now protected from ridicule and insult, by the walls of the 'house appointed for all living.'

Mr. Burke rejoiced at the resistance of America. One day, said one of his son's friends to Mr. Burke, 'I see, by the Gazette, that we have gained some advantages in Canada.'

'*The king's ministers*,' replied Mr. Burke, 'may flatter themselves that *they* have obtained some advantages, but *we* have not. *Thank God*, however,' added he, laying his hand on his breast, and his countenance brightening at the same instant, '*the enemy are still in good heart.*'

Mr. Burke's accounts, as paymaster of the forces, when in office, are here said (page 255) to *remain unsettled to this day*. Mr. Burke was the great adviser of the coalition with the Northites, but he shrunk from the defence of that measure.

Mr. Thomas Paine was the friend and companion of Mr. Burke so lately as at the time of the russian armament, when he carried Mr. Burke certain papers for his use in the senate, but Mr. Burke declined the business, alleging he, on account of the trial of Warren Hastings, had been troublesome to Mr. Pitt, and he had been obliged to enter into a sort of compromise with the minister, not to bring into parliament any more offensive matter. The beginning of a good understanding betwixt Burke and Pitt is traced to this time, and a private letter to Dundas from Burke is introduced, (we know not how obtained, or of what authority) in which evident overtures of reconciliation and unity are made by Mr. Burke to ministers. This is a striking circumstance, and calls for refutation, if false: it was long before his discussions on the french revolution.

During the king's illness, and the discussion of the affairs of the regency, Mr. Burke wrote the speech which the duke of York delivered in the house of lords; he wrote for him another, never delivered, but here given at full length; he wrote the letter of the prince of Wales to Pitt, and the address of the prince to the irish delegates. Indeed, whenever the opposition had occasion to use the pen, Mr. Burke appears to have done every thing.

When the french revolution broke out, Mr. Burke wrote an ambiguous letter on the subject, rather approving than censuring the attempt, here given, but never published. He says in this letter, 'All men who desire liberty, deserve it; it is not the reward of our merit, or the acquisition of our industry, it is *our inheritance, it is the birth-right of our species.*'

This is the language of an advocate for the rights of man. He wrote a second letter to the same correspondent, never published, but in a different style, breathing disapprobation and hostility to french reformers. After the memorable quarrel betwixt Burke and Fox, they were invited to dine together by a common friend, but the former heard the latter would be present, and would not go. He appears to have been determined upon a total breach with the most kind and sincere friend ever enjoyed by any human being. But Fox was anxious for a reconciliation, and appears altogether amiable.

Mr. Burke spent from february to november in composing his celebrated *Reflections on the French Revolution*, and so altered, corrected, printed, and reprinted them, that when they were published, *not one sheet remained of the original composition*. He who would be a fine writer, must submit to incalculable labour.

Mr. Burke, the adored advocate of liberty and the rights of mankind, had at length so worked himself up to a pitch of hatred to whatever had any thing of the name or nature of freedom, that he abandoned his practice of condescending familiarity at the harvest-home at Beaconsfield; he grew insolent to his servants, whom he had hitherto treated with respect; he endeavoured to resist the emancipation of the africans, and even sneered at the applications made to him in behalf of Poland; the king of which country had just before sent him his picture, as a mark of respect and admiration. The horror with which he regarded dissenters need not be mentioned.

Mr.

Mr. Burke obtained the following pensions :

One on the civil list, of 1200 l. a year for his life and the life of Mrs. Burke, was, though the warrant is dated september 24, 1795, made to commence january 5, 1793.

Two other pensions of 2,500 l. a year for three lives were to commence july 24, 1793, though the patents are dated october 24, 1795. The last two pensions he sold for 27,000 l.

What he wrote during the progress of the french revolution is in every body's hands. He died on the 8th of july, 1797, at Beaconsfield, as his servants were carrying him to bed.

Mr. Fox, whose overtures of reconciliation he had disdained, attended his funeral, full of grief and sorrow.

Mr. Burke did not violate those rules of morality in his private life, which are seldom observed by the great, and with the violation of which his associates were too justly chargeable. Happy in his domestic connection, his chastity was above suspicion, and his temperance was truly rigid. He has called Rousseau 'a lover of his kind, and a hater of his kindred;' now with whatever regard Mr. Burke viewed his kind, there can be no doubt that he was a lover and benefactor of his kindred.

When exhausted by study, instead of invigorating himself by spirits or wine, Mr. Burke drank large quantities of *very hot water*, sometimes four or five quarts in a morning. *Warm water*, he said, would relax and nauseate, but *hot water* was the best stimulant and restorative in the world.

Mr. Burke wrote none of his speeches, even the most celebrated, beforehand, but upon every grand occasion his preparatory efforts were astonishing; he read, he reflected deeply, and when his genius kindled, he started up, he harangued, he declaimed aloud, he rehearsed his speech, with the utmost ardour and animation. He was not remarkable for patronizing literary characters in want, his beneficence took the direction of his kindred—his blood seemed best to assimilate with kindred blood; yet his expenses were immense. Lord Rockingham, lord Verney, sir Joshua Reynolds, and the british government, had supplied him with more than sixty thousand pounds, and yet he was deeply in debt.

Want of prudent economy damned the character of lord Bacon, whom Pope has called, perhaps, with more severity than justice,

"The greatest, wisest, meanest, of mankind."

And, if Mr. Burke ever departed from truth to serve faction, if he became the tool and instrument of government and men whom he despised, he became so on this account.

If economy be not the vital principle of all virtue, it is at least so essential to it's existence, that, without it, every fair promise of character will soon wither.

"Profusion is the parent of want, and want makes villains of us all."

Such is the information contained in this volume. Mr. M. C. has introduced, with a liberal hand, quotations from Mr. Burke's most splendid writings and speeches; and so truly splendid are they, that we were often tempted to cry out,

"Spare, dazzling glory, spare our aching sight."

We think these memoirs extremely defective in information concerning the *youth* of Mr. Burke; they are also greatly wanting in accounts of his mode of study, the books he read, the helps he used for the assistance of his memory, his classical and philosophical attainments, and, indeed, in many very essential particulars besides.

They do not introduce us into familiarity with this illustrious man; and although Boswell's *Life of Johnson* is too minute, yet we could like to see such a life of Edmund Burke, the most singular intellectual phenomenon which this or any other country ever produced. Mr. M. C. has not explored the secret soul of Burke; he has not been admitted into his heart and his confidence: he has told us much that we knew, little that we had not heard. He has, indeed, brought forward some private letters, that tend strongly to impeach the political integrity of Mr. Burke; but he has not told us where he obtained them: he has produced no extrinsic evidence of their authenticity. They are not without some *internal claims* to attention; but, if they be forgeries, we wait the refutation of Dr. Lawrence, who must invalidate these, or touch, with a trembling hand, the topic of political integrity and consistency.

We wait with anxiety for a more finished drawing of Mr. Burke. This attempt is from no mean hand, as far as ability is concerned; but information and knowledge are evidently wanting. We see a gigantic mind formed, and in action, but we are yet ignorant of the *means of it's formation*, of it's progress to that stature which pointed it out to universal gaze.

This task will surely be performed: some able pen will show us how nature forms a Burke.

Some philosophic mind will analyze those plastic atoms of which this mighty man was composed, and tell us by what device a similar arrangement may be effected. The task is great, yet it is a debt demanded by our common nature. We hope ten thousand pens will move until this debt is paid.

But, perhaps, the burning brightness of this comet forbade a near approach; perhaps it's eccentric flight defies the skill of man to measure or to trace it; if so, we must be contented to admire this undefinable body of light, and to wait until a kindred orb appear above our horizon, of which we shall be able to take a more prepared survey, and from which we shall learn to estimate a departed glory. S. A.

ART. VI. *Biographical Anecdotes of the Founders of the French Republic, and of other eminent Characters, who have distinguished themselves in the Progress of the Revolution.* 12mo. 430 pages. Price 5s. boards. Johnson. 1797.

It is obvious, that the compiler of these biographical sketches must found his chief claim to attention on the degree of authenticity which is attached to them: on this subject he had better speak for himself.

Pref. p. iii. 'It may, perhaps, excite some surprise, that the editor should have been enabled to form a work, not contemptible in size, wholly consisting of original sketches of characters, which have, in the course of the french revolution, started in such vast numbers, from obscurity into eminence; and some account will reasonably be required

required of the authenticity of the sources from which such minute details have been supplied. Though various circumstances, which it is unnecessary to specify, prevent the particular mention of the persons to whom he has been indebted for information, he has the satisfaction to assure his readers, that he has received ample communications from various well-informed foreigners, some of whom have been personally connected with the events which they relate, and from englishmen, who have resided in France nearly through the whole period of the revolution. Were he permitted to add their names, they would reflect no small degree of respectability upon his work. For its authenticity, however, he can confidently vouch; as he has relied, not upon vague rumour, but upon direct information from persons intimately conversant with the facts, and well acquainted with the characters, which are the subject of these memoirs.

Our readers can now judge of the degree of confidence which these memoirs can claim, as well as ourselves: we have only to observe on the present volume, that it is generally written with an elegance and vivacity of style, which are peculiarly pleasing; that the anecdotes are mingled with many judicious and sensible reflections; that the politics are free, but temperate; that the estimate of characters is apparently impartial; and that it abounds with the most interesting and entertaining matter. Our readers will have a specimen of the style in the following character, which is given of David.

P. 337. 'Nature, or rather disease, has incapacitated David from being an orator. A frightful tumified cheek has not only distorted his features to a great degree, but, at the same time, disqualified the organs of speech from uttering ten words in the same tone of voice; so that a grave subject, in his mouth, notwithstanding the sensibility of the man, loses its dignity: and at best, he is only able to give a silent vote.

'It is our business rather to speak of him as a deputy, than as a painter, otherwise we might exhibit his admirable piece of the *Horatii*, a painting of itself capable of immortalizing him as an artist. His pictorial sketch of the states-general in the tennis-court at Versailles, is deserving of no less praise, since it was, as an extempore performance, an undeniable proof of his prompt invention, and unequalled talents.

'David, having already enrolled himself a jacobin, was elected to the convention, by the department of Paris. The *Mountain*, as it was called, had been long growing hot with the volcanic matter about to burst forth, and sweep away all opposition. The *lava* did break out; it carried the brissotines along with it, and David approached nearer and nearer the *crater*, that he might, in some measure, direct its direful course: in short, David accepted the office of a member of the committee of *general surety*, while it acted in concert with the other committee of government, the measures of both which were, for a considerable time, directed by the spirit of Robespierre. It must, nevertheless, be acknowledged, in justice to David, that, before he consented to destroy one party, he endeavoured to procure a reconciliation. He had apartments allowed him, in quality of artist, in the *old Louvre Palace*, and here he would collect an assemblage of persons distinguished for their public spirit, or private worth, and would contrive to draw into this agreeable vortex, men of different opinions

and sentiments, with a view to soften their animosity to each other, by making each acquainted with his antagonist's more amiable qualities. This proved a vain effort; for however civil Vergniaud, Montault, Guadet, and Philippeaux might appear in the *salon* of a friend, they evinced no less violence against each other in the *salle de la nation*, which, very soon after this period, became an *arena* for gladiators to exercise their strength or their skill in. The decision on the king's fate broke up David's parties entirely, and for ever separated those of dissimilar opinions. The *appel au peuple* was considered by the *ardent republicans* as an invocation of national wrath, or death, upon them, and, therefore, no terms were to be held with, no mercy was to be shown to the *appellants*. This is the precise moment when those who had neither personal regard nor public esteem for Marat, impelled him to many extravagant acts, and to the most wild and inconsiderate declarations. Marat was the politic *lever*, and the public hatred to monarchy, from the discoveries of the vices of the court, the *fulcrum*, by which Archimedes Robespierre turned the weight of the whole republican world upon its first founders, crushing them to atoms.

The assiduous David did not wholly throw away his *pallet*, he found time to take it up at leisure hours, and employed it to portray the assassination of Lepelletier by Paris, and of Marat by Charlotte Corday; and these two pictures he made a present of to the convention. They were hung up over the president's tribune, in which position it is not difficult to conceive they produced the greatest possible effect.

David was intimately connected with Robespierre: it was he who said, *If I love blood, it is because nature has given me the disposition*. He went, on the third of september, to see the execution of his friends and colleagues—Desmoulins and Danton. The deputy Reboul saw David, at the very moment when the mob were massacring the prisoners at *La Forie*, tranquilly drawing a picture of the dying, as they were heaped on the pile of the dead. "What are you doing there, David?" said he. "*I am catching,*" replied the painter, "*the last emotion of nature in these scoundrels.*" "Go," said Reboul, "you affect me with horror: I could not conceive that you were capable of such barbarity. What a pity it is, that such great talents should be united to so corrupt a heart; it might have been expected, that the fine arts would have softened the most obdurate souls."

After the death of Chabot, Fabre d'Eglantine, and the rest of that *bachis*, as they were called (for the french are always french, and must joke and pun) David was wholly absorbed in Robespierre's actions, if not in his views. He says he was egregiously deceived in him; but when that ambitious and cruel usurper made his last speech in the hall of the jacobins, complaining of the inimical power rising up, in the committees of government, against him, and alluding to the case of Socrates, saying, "I shall drink the hemlock;" David advanced to the tribune, and exclaimed, "And I will also drink it with thee." These words were as strong, and nearly as fatal to him, as the hand-writing on the wall of Balthazar's palace, but he had favourable interpreters. The convention, while they condemned his devotion to the tyrant, conceived him *passively*, not *actively* guilty; they recollected his talents, and the service he had rendered the republic by his exertion of them. On the memorable day of denunciation,

ciation, therefore, while Robespierre, his brother, Couthon, and St. Just, were arrested in the convention, and carried, in a few hours, to execution. David's looked-for sentence was respited, that an examination of some circumstances he had urged in his favour might take place. He lay in the Luxembourg eleven weeks. The acerbity of his enemies' minds grew blunted, the public had half forgotten the mischiefs of the *decemviri*, the nation had recovered its hopes, and tasted of victory, and in this happy state of the capital and of all France, David escaped, and is, at this time, one of the members of the *national institute*: an honour to which his unparalleled skill and judgment gave him a well-founded claim. David is about 46 years of age, is a widower, and has two promising sons, one of whom bids fair to inherit all his father's reputation as an artist.

About a hundred and thirty characters are sketched in this popular little volume; and a very useful chart is prefixed, of the proscriptions of parties in France, from that of the brissotins in June, 1793, to that of the royalists in June, 1797.

L. M. S.

ART. VII. *Notice sur la Vie & les Travaux de Lavoisier, &c.*—

Some Account of the Life and Labours of Lavoisier. By Fourcroy. 8vo. a pamphlet.

THIS, which is the *elog*e of one of the most celebrated chemists of the present age, was pronounced at the Lyceum of the Arts, on the '15 thermidor, 4th year.' After lamenting the many irreparable outrages committed against philosophy, by the sacrifice of virtuous citizens, such as Condorcet, Malesherbes, Bailly, and others, during the despotism of Robespierre, it is fondly hoped by Fourcroy, that the oak and laurel, which bedeck the tomb of Lavoisier, will conceal the bloody cypress that overshadows it.

Anthony-Laurent-Lavoisier was born in Paris, on the 16th of August, 1743. He had only attained his twenty-third year, when a memoir on the best method of lighting the streets of a great city during the night procured him a gold medal, voted by the academy of sciences on the 9th of April, 1766; a short time afterwards, he himself was admitted into that learned body, and became one of its most useful members.

He was successively occupied about the pretended conversion of water into earth, the analysis of the various gypsums in the neighbourhood of Paris, the crystallisation of salts, the project of introducing the stream of the Yvette into the capital, the congelation of water, the phenomena of thunder, and the *aurora borealis*. His journeys in company with Guettard throughout all the provinces of France furnished him with materials for the lithological and mineralogical description of that empire, laid down by him in a chart: the same papers served him as a basis for his important labours relative to the revolutions of the globe, and the formation of the various *strata* of earth, of which two fine sketches are to be found in the memoirs of the academy for 1772, and 1709.

Both the time and fortune of Lavoisier were soon entirely devoted to the cultivation of the sciences, and he seemed destined to contribute equally to the progress of them all, when an event, such as but rarely presents itself in the records of human genius decided

his choice, attached him exclusively to chemistry, and speedily conferred immortality on his name.

This, we are told, was the celebrated discovery of elastic fluids, by means of which, Black, Cavendish, Macbride, and Priestley, had just opened a new world to the philosophers. The french chemist repeated and varied their experiments, confirmed and extended their results. His first work, which he presented to the academy in 1775, was entitled. '*Nouvelles Recherches sur l'Existence d'un Fluide élastique fixé dans quelques Substances, & sur les Phénomènes, &c.*'

'Lavoisier all at once exhibited himself in chemistry, what Kepler, Newton, and Euler, had been in mathematics and geometry: he opened a career which genius alone could point out; he soon changed, not only the manner of operating, but also the manner of reasoning in this science, and he became the centre, as it were, of all the labours, and all the discoveries, relative to the elastic fluids, between 1774 and 1792.'

His fortune was consecrated solely to the extension of chemistry, his house became one immense laboratory, and he opened it twice a week for the reception of scientific men from all parts of Europe.

But his merit was not confined to one branch of science, for he was of eminent service in manufactures, and the arts. While he superintended the fabrication of gunpowder, he rendered the process more easy and simple, and actually quintupled the produce of saltpetre. As a commissary for the establishment of new measures, he also distinguished himself; or were his labours less conspicuous, relative to the *assignats*. While a member of the provincial assembly of the *orléannais* in 1787, he exhibited great philanthropy, extraordinary knowledge, and an earnest desire for the reform of abuses. When called to the national treasury in 1791, he established such a methodical arrangement, as to enable any one to ascertain the exact state of the public money, at the close of every evening.

'Lavoisier, in short, was one of the greatest administrators ever France beheld, and the republic, in him, lost a citizen who would have been eminently useful in a species of merit, at once so rare, and so necessary. To these various advantages, he added all the qualities of a good heart: he was a faithful friend, an excellent husband; simple and pure in his manners, moderate and sage in his passions, regular throughout every part of his conduct: his private life was a perpetual worship of all the domestic virtues.'

Such is the character of the man, who was cut off in the midst of his honourable labours, by the sentence of an infamous tribunal.

s.

ART. VIII. *The Life of Bianca Capello, Wife of Francesco de' Medici, Grand-Duke of Tuscany. Translated from the German Original of J. P. Siebenkees. By C. Ludger. 12mo. 170 pa. Price 3s. sewed. Liverpool, Jones: London, Lee and Hurst. 1797.*

At first it seems a little extraordinary, that persons, whose eminent and lofty situations in life expose them to constant and public observation, should ever leave behind them so questionable a character, as to be a subject of disputation to all future historians. This same eminence in life, however, which invites observation, is also enabled to baffle and elude it; opposing parties and cabals, with
equal

equal ingenuity repel the attacks of each other: documents are forged to support a calumny or conceal a fact, and if contemporaries are deceived, much pains are required on the part of posterity to detect the imposture. These observations, the truth of which is attested by a hundred instances in addition to those which this moment occur to us, of Mary of Scots, and Richard the third of England, in some measure apply to the life of Bianca Capello, the mistress and afterwards the wife of Francesco de' Medici. The "Bianca Capello" of Mr. Meissner, and Sanseverino's work, entitled *Storia della Vita, e tragica Morte de Bianca Capello*, made so favourable an impression respecting this extraordinary character, that she was regarded almost as immaculate, and pitied as a wretched victim to the cruelty and ambition of her brother-in-law, the cardinal Ferdinando.

The present biographer, from his residence at Venice, the spot where the die of Bianca's future life was first cast, and from his intimacy with one of the best and most successful compilers of the venetian history, had a favourable opportunity of investigating the history of this celebrated female: he had afterwards, moreover, the opportunity of consulting the many interesting and authentic documents concerning her life, which the archives of Florence contained. The result of these investigations was the memoir at present before us, which shades in no inconsiderable degree, the lustre, which the writers just mentioned had reflected on her, and vindicates the cardinal Ferdinando from the foul and atrocious calumnies, which had aspersed his character. The credit which Mr. Siebenkees claims for his history is drawn from the authorities whence he composed it; several manuscripts he received from the grand-ducal archives, and several from private libraries; as to the printed accounts, there are but few, he says, which have been serviceable to him in his life of Bianca. To the list, which is given us at full length, our author has annexed some critical remarks respecting the degree of authenticity, which, from their circumstances or modes of writing, he thinks they may severally claim. So far as we are enabled to judge of the present performance, it appears to be written acutely, and impartially; and probably it comprises as much authentic information, as it is possible to obtain.

In the preface of the translator we are told, that, soon after the completion of his task, he came to the knowledge of Mr. Noble's memoirs of the illustrious house of Medici. This latter gentleman asserts, that he has carefully perused and examined a great number of publications and manuscripts relative to his subject; but, as he has omitted to quote any of his authorities, the translator presumes, he is not entitled to credit in preference to Mr. Siebenkees, in whatever circumstances they differ: these circumstances, it must be acknowledged, are very numerous and very important; the translator, however, not only intimates, but roundly asserts, that Mr. Noble has taken several of his anecdotes from lord Orrery's letters. Mr. Noble may possibly think it incumbent on him to repel this accusation, and although his omission to quote authorities may fairly excite some degree of suspicion, it by no means follows, that he did not

ascend to the same source for his anecdotes, which lord Orrery himself did.

Mr. Noble may also retort, that, although Mr. Siebenkees has given in his preface a list of documents, whence the biography is taken, he has not a single *particular* reference throughout his whole work.

L. M. S.

MEDICINE. CHEMISTRY. ANATOMY.

ART. IX. *Medical Facts and Observations.* 8vo. Vol. I to Vol. VI. 1791—1795. About 240 pages each, with plates. Pr. 4s. each. Vol. VII. 390 p. and 3 plates. Pr. 6s. in boards. Johnson. 1797.

THOUGH we have omitted examining these Facts and Observations in the regular order of their appearance, it has not been from any idea of their inutility, or want of importance, but from other causes. We shall now, however, endeavour to atone for our omission, by giving an account of them from their commencement.

The present collection is intended to form a kind of sequel to the work published by the same author, under the title of *London Medical Journal*; and its objects are nearly the same, the improvement and diffusion of medical knowledge. The materials are of a mixed nature, being partly drawn from the transactions of learned societies, and partly from original papers, furnished by the editor's medical correspondents.

Vol. I. Pref. p. vii. 'This method,' says he, 'of blending original observations with materials collected from books, seems to be the most proper for a work of this kind, which, while it serves to excite a spirit of inquiry, and records interesting facts, is intended to comprise accounts of every important discovery and improvement that shall be made in medical science.'

Many solid objections might be urged against the *general* practice of extracting materials from printed works; but where it is done with judgment, and proper discrimination, as in the publication before us, it cannot fail of being highly useful.

The editor's apology is this; that by collecting, pref. p. ix, 'part of his materials from books, he shall render an acceptable service to the reader. The channels of medical information are now so numerous, and in so many different languages, that many important observations probably remain for a long time unknown to persons who are busily employed in the practice of physic, and to whom, of course, they would be the most interesting, but who have not sufficient time or opportunity to consult the several works in which they are to be found.'

'This remark seems to be more particularly applicable to the Transactions of learned Societies, which, on account of their bulk and price, or the variety of subjects, not immediately connected with physic, of which they treat, are, comparatively speaking, in the hands of few medical readers, although they frequently contain papers with which this class of readers cannot but wish to be acquainted. To collect from such publications, either entire, or in an abridged form, the more important observations, relative to the practice of physic,

physic, and to medical philosophy, which they contain, seems likely, therefore, to be of considerable utility; and for the reasons, just now given, the editor intends also to have recourse, occasionally, to other printed works, but without professing to give a general review of new medical books.

A part of the work is to be brought out as frequently as a quantity of matter, sufficient to fill about fifteen sheets, is collected.

The first volume contains several interesting original communications.

The case of hydrophobia, described by Dr. Ferriar, represents the cause of the great aversion to fluids, in that disease, in a more satisfactory point of view, than it has generally been considered. By dissection, performed a few hours after death, abrasions, in irregular points, about two inches above the cardia, were discovered in the epidermis of the œsophagus, which presented an inflamed surface, of a dark red colour. Lower down, these abrasions became linear, and extended even into the stomach.

The portion of remedial information to be derived from this paper, is not great. The doctor considers, and perhaps justly, that bleeding, and mercurial frictions, are here ambiguous remedies; and he judiciously suggests, that greater advantages may be procured by the cold bath, and the free use of bark and opium.

The remarks of Mr. Loflie, on the prevention of the same disease, by means of excision and caustic, possess nothing of novelty. Practitioners have long known, that these are the only means that can be fully depended upon as preventatives.

The practical conclusions of Mr. Sparrow, concerning the extraction of cataracts, deserve the surgeon's attention.

The history of the case of *petechiæ sine febre*, as drawn up by Dr. Ferris, affords little useful information. We are inclined to believe the doctor mistaken, in concluding the disease to be very rare. Several cases are described by authors; and we have lately seen two instances of the disorder, both of which terminated favourably under a plan of treatment somewhat similar to that which the doctor pursued.

Mr. Ford's description of the case, in which a catheter was found in the bladder, is clear and judicious. The singularity of the case rendered it too important to be omitted.

The case of 'imperforate rectum' affords a curious proof of malformation, but furnishes no practical hint of importance.

The practical remarks of so experienced a physician as Dr. Percival, on any disease, certainly demand respect. Hydrocephalus is, however, a disorder even yet little understood by the most enlightened practitioners. We apprehend more from inflammation, than the doctor seems willing to allow; and consequently do not think so highly of the use of mercurial remedies. In the first stage of the disease, at least, we agree with Dr. Rush, in thinking that bleeding should be employed.

The remaining papers of this volume are drawn from the Transactions of Societies, and are on different subjects, connected with medicine. They are, in general, judiciously selected.

In the second volume we meet with but few valuable essays. The cases described by Mr. Carter, however, throw additional light on some points, in the practice of surgery; and that detailed by Mr. Hughes,

Hughes, as well as those of polydipsia, are, in many respects, curious and interesting.

Of the use of electricity; in whatever way it may be applied in paralytic affections, we have not any very high opinion. We know it to be both a feeble and uncertain remedy; but in slight cases of this kind, cures may probably be effected by it, and indeed have been, even when it has been used in the common method. What peculiar advantages may attend it's application, in the way that has been *discovered* by Dr. Gilley, we know not; little, however, can be inferred from it's use in two cases. The practice of a large hospital might, surely, have afforded more than these instances.

The observations of Mr. Blizzard are most interesting and important, in so far as they lead to more probable means of investigating the cause of epidemical effects.

Mr. Cleghorn's facts respecting the cure of burns by vinegar and chalk are useful to the practitioner, though the author's application seems to have been employed in an empirical way. It is not improbable, however, that the great utility, at least so far as the vinegar is concerned, may depend upon the quantity of spirit that it contains, as diluted vitriolic acid appears to have been prejudicial.

In this volume we have only two papers extracted from publications, both of which are important. The first is by mons. Default, chief surgeon of the Hotel-Dieu at Paris; and the latter by Dr. Adair Crawford, on the matter of cancer. This is, in many points, an extremely valuable essay, as the author's conclusions chiefly rest on experimental investigation. How far the hints thrown out may improve the treatment of cancers is difficult to say; but they certainly hold out new prospects, and justify the trial of new remedies.

The original communications contained in the third volume afford but little new information. The cases which Dr. Willan has described, under the title *ischiuria renalis*, appear to us to have depended upon inflammation, particularly of the mesentery, and the suppression of urine to have been symptomatic. They do not show the superiour utility of the warm-bath, which was the remedy that the doctor chiefly trusted to in these cases.

The facts stated by Jesse Foot afford additional proof of what has been long known, that excision is the only means that can safely be depended on in the prevention of hydrophobia.

The spasmodic affection, treated by Mr. Wilkinson, shows, that electricity, though a powerful, is too diffusible a stimulus to effect permanent cures in these cases. His conjectures concerning the nature of the complaint seem to have been well founded.

Some of the details furnished by Mr. Davidson are worthy of being attended to, particularly those relating to the cutaneous effects induced by the poison of copper.

The materials composing the rest of the volume are extracted from different periodical transactions.

The portion of original matter in the fourth volume is considerably larger, and some of the communications are extremely interesting.

Mr. Boag's observations on fevers, and the dysentery of hot climates, are useful in different respects, especially so far as relates to the mode of using mercury.

Mr.

Mr. Gaitskill's remarks and investigations concerning the pathology, and mode of treatment of calculi in general, are ingenious and important. He appears to have taken up the idea of the late Dr. Austin on this subject, and supposes accordingly, that concretions of this kind are morbid in their commencement, that the urine contributes nothing to their formation, that they are composed of a modified mucus, and are not calcareous. The chemical trials were chiefly made with intestinal calculi of horses.

Mr. Park's case of varicose aneurism contains many useful hints, and suggests the necessity of giving a cautious prognostic in complaints of this kind.

The utility of opium in menorrhagia has been long known; and Mr. Copland's cases furnish no new information with respect to that remedy.

Though we have no doubt of the utility, we cannot think that a real *gutta serena* can be cured by a few pinches of mercurial snuff. Mr. Blagdon's case is by no means satisfactory.

When once a new hypothesis is taken up, every thing frequently gives way to it. This seems to be the case with Mr. Davidfon. But abstinence from liquids may cure active pulmonary hemorrhage in other ways, beside that of preventing distension; and Mr. D., by his bleeding, purging, and blistering, appears to have had something more in view than the mere removal of such a cause.

The case of psoas abscess, described by Mr. Smith, strongly proves the utility of discharging the contents of abscesses of this nature by puncture.

The reflections and suggestions of Dr. Beddoes, on certain effects of heat and cold on the living system, are highly ingenious, and deserve to be more closely attended to by practitioners.

Mr. Crowther's hints on the use of caustics, in cases of white swellings of the joints, are submitted to the consideration of practitioners with modesty, and deserve further attention. It is only from a great number of cases, that a fair deduction can be drawn.

The extracts which constitute the remaining papers are made from the Asiatick Researches, and the Transactions of the Royal Society.

The fifth volume contains a pretty large portion of useful matter.

Since Mr. Hunter presented his method of operating in cases of aneurism, many instances of the successful management of that disease have been recorded; and Mr. F. Forster here presents us with accounts of two, in which the principles laid down by that ingenious surgeon were applied with complete success. These were cases of popliteal aneurism.

Doctor Beddoes's account of the effects of opium, in counteracting the poisonous operation of digitalis, is very instructive. It shows that opium may be freely given in such cases.

Mr. Ramsey's success, in the case of compound fracture here detailed, sufficiently proves, that recourse should not be so indiscriminately had to amputation in such instances. Mr. Guy's case is also of the same kind.

Of the use of æther in diseases of debility there can be little doubt; and in the cases of intermittent fever, described by Mr. Davidfon, we see nothing extraordinary. The æther operated as a powerful

erful stimulant, and in that way, probably, effected a cure; and other stimulants have been known to do the same in these disorders.

The case of apoplexy, related by Mr. Williams, presents us with nothing but a set of conjectures, from which no useful inferences can be drawn. Such accounts occupy the room of more important information.

Among the extracts that constitute the remaining part of the volume, we have observed several papers of importance. Doctor Currie's, and and Mr. O'Halloran's, are particularly deserving of the reader's attention.

The sixth volume commences with an account of the use of arsenic, in the intermittent fevers of tropical climates, by Dr. Winterbottom. The advantages that had been derived from the use of this powerful remedy in these cases, in this country, by different practitioners, induced the doctor to make a trial of it in the climate of Sierra Leone, in similar diseases; and the success of his practice sufficiently justifies the use of the remedy. A great number of cases are described, in which it was employed with the best effects.

A solution of sal ammoniac in vinegar, employed as a topical application, in cases of lacerated wounds, appears to have been attended with great advantage, under the direction of Mr. Carter. This he supposes a more safe and successful practice than that of using warm fomentations and cataplasms. It must, however, be observed, that in the cases before us, beside the application of the solution, very powerful internal remedies were given; such, for instance, as bark, opium, and wine.

The case of diseased kidney, and that of gun-shot wound of the head, by the same author, are curious, as facts.

The case of aneurism here described affords us little in addition to what Mr. Forster had already told us. It merely supplies another instance of the utility of the operation.

Mr. Clarke's key instrument, for the extraction of teeth, is ingeniously constructed for the purpose; and his reasoning, with respect to it's mode of action and application, we conceive to be pretty correct. It is certainly an important improvement in this kind of instruments.

The extracted matter of this volume is considerable, but does not appear to be equally important with that of many of the other volumes; we have, however, observed a few papers, that contain useful information.

In the seventh volume we observe a considerable increase of matter, much of which is important and useful.

The practical observations of Dr. Wright, on the treatment of acute diseases in the West-Indies, are in many respects judicious, though on the whole they convey but little new information. That the application of cold water to the surface of the body in typhus fevers in hot climates, where the tendency to indirect debility is great, may be useful, there cannot be much doubt; but we do not think that it will be found equally serviceable in cold regions, notwithstanding the success that the professor of medicine in the university of Edinburgh is said to have derived from it. In some cases, and under particular circumstances, it may perhaps be usefully employed. We are not, however, told by Dr. W. what medicines were used beside the *lavatio frigida*,

frigida, in the cases treated by professor Gregory. We perfectly agree with the author that, in this country at least, the earlier it is made use of the better.

Dr. W. has here given many remarks on the use of different remedies in the yellow fever, which seem to contradict in some respects those that have been made by Dr. Rush. Calomel has indeed been found to have good effects; but the use of the lancet generally proved prejudicial. On the cure of the black vomiting we may insert the doctor's own words.

VOL. VII. P. 12.—‘Hitherto, the black vomiting has usually been considered as a fatal symptom; and a remedy to obviate it has long been a desideratum amongst physicians. To whom the happy discovery of such a remedy, in the capsicum, is owing, I have not yet learned; but he merits the thanks of his country, and of mankind!’

‘That a medicine of so hot and fiery a nature as Cayenne pepper, can be given with safety and efficacy in a disorder so evidently inflammatory, is truly surprising, and can only be accounted for in two ways: first, by supposing that the stimulus of the pepper is stronger than that of the contagion; or secondly, (to use the language of my late ingenious friend, Mr. John Hunter) that it induces a different action in the stomach and first passages.’

That *Cayenne pepper* is capable of removing the disease, in this stage, we have much difficulty in believing, notwithstanding the above assertion. But if it should even be found to have this effect, we hardly think that it would be explicable upon either of the suppositions that the doctor has made. We rather apprehend that, in this stage, the disease is not inflammatory, but of a very different nature, which requires the use of powerful stimulants.

Calomel is a remedy, in this fever, that has lately been so much employed, and acquired so high a character, that we have no hesitation in laying our author's opinion of it before the reader.

P. 23.—‘In the treatment of the different diseases mentioned in this paper, you have seen the liberal use I make of calomel. I have contented myself with candidly relating to you the effects I have experienced from it, without attempting any theory of the mode in which these effects are produced. I think it necessary, however, to observe to you, that freely as I have administered calomel in different acute diseases, I have seldom, if ever, been surprised with a sudden salivation. I indeed have paid daily attention to the state of the mouth and gums, and as soon as I have observed the latter spongy, and that the tongue was beginning to be moist about the edges, I have desisted from the farther use of calomel; because I was then certain that a resolution of the disorder was begun, and that my patient was out of danger.’

‘In answer to your question, how early I got the first hint of the use of calomel in fevers? I answer, it was my good fortune, for many years, to enjoy the friendship and confidence of the late Dr. Lind, of Hallar; and it was from his conversation, and the information contained in his excellent work on the diseases of warm climates, that I learnt the East-India practice of giving mercury in inflammations of the liver, and the success with which the late sir John Eliot had treated visceral obstructions by the same remedy; all which I knew so early as the year 1760. But it was not before 1764 that I began to
give

give calomel in so free a manner as I have done ever since, not only in hepatitis, but in all the other acute diseases I have treated of; and I extended its use from reasoning in my own mind, and from analogy. I have never had cause to repent of the further trials I made; but, on the contrary, have had reason to consider this practice as the happy means of saving the lives of a great number of people.

'I think it right to add, that Dr. Drummond, of Westmoreland, in Jamaica, whom I have already had occasion to mention more than once in the course of this letter, began to administer calomel in fevers and pleurisies as early as I did, though without our having had any communication on the subject with each other. I have since found that he learned the use of it, in such cases, from Dr. Smith, a physician at Savannah le Mar, who was in the habit of giving it, in doses of twenty grains, in acute diseases, with great success.'

Dr. Beddoes's observations respecting the origin of intermittent fevers are interesting, and in our opinion very satisfactorily show Dr. Cullen to have been mistaken, in attributing these fevers solely to marsh miasmata.

The observations of Mr. Carlisle, on the nature and means of removing corns, are judicious and valuable. They, perhaps, afford the first instance of the application of scientific principles to the subject.

Dr. Winterbottom's paper is useful, and shows, that the Angustura bark is a valuable remedy in many cases of intermittent fever, but many comparative trials are necessary, before it can be ascertained in what proportion its effects stand to those of other barks.

Mr. Golding's papers contain some curious circumstances, but afford only a slender portion of practical information.

The cases of foul ulcers, in which charcoal was employed by Mr. Simmons, strongly mark the utility of this application, in lessening pain and correcting the disagreeable smell of the sores. In these respects the observations of others coincide with those of the author.

The case described by Mr. Fryer affords a curious instance of the little inconvenience, that is sometimes experienced from extraneous substances remaining in particular parts of the body. In this instance, a large quantity of pins had lodged in a woman's breast sixty years.

The chief advantage of Mr. Savigny's key instrument for the extraction of teeth depends upon an improvement, that he properly acknowledges to have taken from Mr. Clarke's paper on the same subject.

The quantity of information that Dr. Pearson has given in his paper 'on the effects of the vapour of vitriolic æther, in cases of phthisis pulmonalis,' is not very great. That in some instances it may alleviate distressing symptoms, and produce temporary relief, is not to be disputed; but we much doubt, from trials made in the same way many years ago, that it will completely eradicate the disease. Indeed the evidence here adduced does not by any means go so far. The doctor thinks it most suitable to the florid or scrofulous consumption; and owns, that where pulmonic affections are complicated with mesenteric obstructions, or diseases of the other viscera, or a dropical condition, it only affords transitory benefit. And that 'in the very last stage of the disorder, the proper time for using it is past.' This we believe does not only hold good with respect to the vapour of æther, but all other medicines. The practice of infusing different substances

substances in the æther is judicious, though we have not much expectation from any impregnation that it can receive from *cicuta* in this way. The author has also found it useful in removing catarrhs.

The portion of extracted materials in this volume forms nearly two thirds of the whole, but the reader will in general find, that much judgment has been exercised in their selection. Several of the papers are extremely valuable. This remark is particularly applicable to Mr. Abernethy's instances of uncommon formation in the viscera of the human body; Mr. Cruikshanks's and Dr. Haighton's papers on the reproduction of nerves; professor Monro's, on a human male monster; Mr. King's, on a new instrument for performing the operation of trepanning the skull; Dr. Holyoke's, on the excess of the heat and cold of the american atmosphere beyond the european; professor Tenghil's, on hydrocephalus; and Dr. James Clark's, on the poisonous quality of the juice of the root of *jatropha manihot*, or bitter cassada, &c., and on the comparative quantities of amylaceous matter yielded by the different vegetables most commonly in use in the west-india islands.

ART. X. *Reports principally concerning the Effects of the Nitrous Acid in the Venereal Disease, by the Surgeons of the Royal Hospital at Plymouth, and by other Practitioners.* Published by Thomas Beddoes, M. D. 8vo. 101 pa. Price 2s. 6d. Bristol, Biggs; London, Johnson. 1797.

THE discovery of a powerful remedy is perhaps of more importance to medicine, than the unfolding of a new hypothesis. The latter is not however to be always disregarded. In the present tract Dr. B. appears in the useful character of introducing to the attention of practitioners a new and apparently valuable medicine. At least, the evidence adduced in the detail of cases, in which it has been employed, is in many respects strong and satisfactory; and tends to corroborate the observations and results of different trials made by other ingenious inquirers in the same way.

The cases drawn up by Mr. Hammick, junior surgeon in the royal hospital, Plymouth, were treated in so public a manner, and are so extremely interesting, that we shall insert Dr. Geach's observations upon them, as stated in his answer to Dr. B.'s queries,

P. 28. 'The patients, whose cases Mr. Hammick, junior, lately transmitted, were regularly attended by myself; and every circumstance was remarked as minutely as possible, and is strictly true. So great indeed has been the success of this nitric medicine in the venereal disorder, *that many patients, who had been broken down by an antecedent use of mercury, under which the disorder gained ground, recovered their health and strength without the assistance of diet drinks, change of air, the bark, or any other tonic medicine whatever.* We have but few instances where the stomach and bowels have been affected by it; but the precaution of taking it through a narrow glass tube has prevented the acid from affecting the teeth, and the medicine has been rendered more palatable by mixing simple syrup with it; and this addition, as far as we have hitherto noticed, has been effectual enough to prevent both mawkishness and pain. But, although these circumstances have now and then succeeded the use of the nitrous acid,

acid, it does not affect the mouth or produce a ptyalism. It does not impair the appetite, it does not require any dietetic regimen, or confinement. Indurated buboes have yielded to it without suppurating; *phagedenic buboes have healed after unsuccessful trials with mercury: in chancres, however large, or sordid, and in excoriations of the scrotum, however fetid and extensive, the cure, by its use, goes on more rapidly than by a mercurial process.* Such chancres and excoriations have been dressed only with simple ointment, that the patients might not be incommoded by the friction of the linen, and that the effect of the medicine might be better ascertained, when there was no local application. We have not found, after the chancres have been cured by this medicine, that the throat has been affected; a circumstance not unusual, especially when such ulcers have been dressed with any mercurial preparation. *The cases sent by Mr. Hammick were the worst that were received into the hospital.*

‘ That the nitrous acid has succeeded in fifty cases, or more, is certain;—but it has failed in four or five instances, and failed too, where the cases have been apparently slight. But whether the failure can be imputed to the inadequacy of the medicine, under particular or unobserved circumstances, or to causes not yet explored, I know not: future experience must throw more light on the efficacy of this medicine, which, at present, is only in its dawn. It has removed, in some patients, nocturnal pains. In the gonorrhœa itself it has been tried, as very bad cases only have particularly engaged our attention. In attending to those, we have endeavoured to bring every thing to the test of truth, which ought to be the guide to every man in a profession, which has for its object the restoration of health, and in a disorder, which sometimes baffles the skill of the most experienced. Suffer me to own, that when we first made trial of the nitric acid, no great opinion was entertained of its success. Accustomed to give mercury in this disease, a practice sanctioned by great authorities and time, we were inclined to think that no medicine but mercury would cure it. There was no bias, no predilection therefore, for this new medicine, no attachment to system. But as the nitrous acid was so respectably recommended by yourself, this was a sufficient motive to make trial of it; and nothing but the success that has attended its use, could authorize us to write in this manner to you, who are the best entitled to the earliest communication.’

Many other communications introduced into this collection are highly valuable, though the acid does not appear to have been so successfully employed. In general, however, it has produced good effects of one kind or another.

On the whole, the ingenious editor thinks, that ‘ there is already, in favour of the nitrous acid, a far greater fullness and variety of testimony, than has ever been produced in favour of any of those other substances that have at various times been proposed as substitutes for mercury.’ In his opinion it clearly follows from what has been observed, ‘ that where the constitution is broken, the habit feeble or scrofulous, the cure should always be attempted by the nitrous acid, in preference to any other medicine.’

In order however to remove every scruple respecting the powers of this remedy, the editor has proposed a plan for collecting and printing reports of its effects; communications for which are to be sent to Mr. Johnson's, St. Paul's church-yard, London, as soon as may be after the commencement of the year 1798.

By such a plan, he supposes, that in two years the knowledge of a century may be acquired. To assist inquirers the doctor has suggested many useful hints and considerations; some of which we shall lay before the reader, as there may be practitioners who have not an opportunity of consulting these reports.

P. 84. 'Whether,' says the editor, 'we adopt the obsolete, or the prevailing language concerning the operation of mercury, is thus far indifferent. It is easy to conceive the great improbability, that a single power should be exclusively adequate to the removal of siphylitic affections. The supposition is contrary to the general tenour of our experience of nature. Most of her productions appear to be members of a series. There is hardly any substance or agency, of which it can be averred, *nec viget quicquam simile aut secundum*. If mercury eliminate the venereal virus by the salivary glands, other untried bodies may eliminate it by the same, or by other emunctories. But salivation not being essential, the curative operation is supposed to consist in contractions of vessels, nervous vibrations, or other actions of whose quality or quantity we have no test or measure. It is, however, difficult to suppose mercury, and mercury only, capable of exciting them: and in whatever you make the operation of mercury to consist, an hundred modes or degrees of action, each different from the other, and all from any mercurials can produce, may be curative of siphylis. Mercurials probably produce other changes in the system, besides those that supersede the effects of venereal infection; and some of these changes appear highly detrimental to certain constitutions. When hurried so as to produce violent salivation, mercurials are said not to have cured siphylis.

'Let us, for an instant, suppose that mercurials and the newly tried salts have a common operation, depending on oxygen. Now it is most likely that there is a given quantity of oxygen gas, which if inhaled, would cause the same feverishness that has been observed to follow the use of the oxygenated muriate, viz. thirst, whiteness of the tongue, quickened circulation, and fizy blood; or at least, the latter of these appearances. Will oxygen gas, so affecting the system, cure siphylis? P. 105, part iii. of "*Considerations on Airs*," a case of siphylis is related, where oxygen gas was thought beneficial. But the circumstances are indistinct, and I think the quantity of air too trifling for any effect. Again, will mercurials and our salts cooperate to a cure? Will half the necessary quantity of a mercurial, joined to half the necessary quantity of nitrous acid, or oxygenated muriate, give the same result as the full quantity of either? From a passage in Dr. Rutherford's letter, there is room to surmise that they would. And so they ought, if their action be identical, or if they owe their virtue solely to oxygen. We have not, it is true, such accuracy in medicine as to halve necessary quantities or doses;

but in a number of cases a difference in the dose should be sensible, if the supposition is just.

Unless it be true, that very diversified actions are capable of effecting a cure in syphilis, it would seem, from other facts, that no antisyphilitic remedy can owe its virtue to oxygen. The occasional efficacy of certain plants, as sarsaparilla with mezereon, the astragalus exscapus, &c. is strongly attested. But how can the decoction of a bitterish, sub-astringent root, such as that of the astragalus, be imagined capable of oxygenating the system? Nor indeed, have other plants, which have been said to be useful in syphilis, the sensible or chemical qualities of those substances that contain oxygen largely and loosely combined. I refer to these plants for the sake of illustration; and would by no means be understood to speak of them, as generally useful in venereal complaints. There are, I believe, but few constitutions in which any of the number will be found efficacious, even in the secondary stage of lues. But it seems sufficiently ascertained that there are some (e. g. see Girtanner's *Vener. Krankh. i. Murray App. Med. vi. 83.*) It is to be lamented, that a catalogue of these plants, accompanied with what evidence exists of their powers, is not made out. For however disagreeable medicinal drenches may be, nine patients in ten would swallow all the decoctions the surgeon can contrive, rather than endure the tortures of secondary syphilis.

The design of the author is so judicious and interesting, that we should hope practitioners in every situation would lend their assistance to promote it's accomplishment, in doing which they will find much advantage from consulting the observations and details comprised in this tract.

ART. XI. *Remarks on the Scurvy as it appeared among the English Prisoners in France, in the Year 1795; with an Account of the Effects of Opium in that Disease, and of the Methods proper to render its Use more extensive and easy; (written during his Confinement in the Tower) by R. T. Crosfeild, M. D. 8vo. 40 p. Ridgeway. 1797.*

DOCTOR Crosfeild it seems was one of the persons tried in may 1796, for a pretended plot to assassinate the king by means of a poisoned arrow; and is here justly grateful to the twelve honest men that pronounced his innocence.

The medical part of the pamphlet appears to have been written during the time of this confinement, and contains a plain, and we have no doubt, a just account of what the author saw while he was engaged in administering relief to his sick countrymen in France; but we have not observed, that the doctor has advanced much that is new either in respect to the causes or the methods of treating the disease. He has indeed found opium more successful than many other practitioners in alleviating the sufferings of scorbutic patients, but we do not find that in one instance it totally eradicated the complaint. In the following case it certainly was of great utility.

P. 19. 'From these premises,' says the author, 'it was reasonable for me to conclude, that the only radical cure for the scurvy was to be

be obtained not from medicine but from change of diet; yet that some palliation might be expected from those means that could be used to increase the appetite, joined with such as give what may be called artificial strength. Such are the several acids, bark, opium, wine, and strong liquors, taken in moderation; but none of these could be supposed to do more than relieve for a few days.

'Before I had perfectly satisfied my own mind on the subject, an event, less the effect of design than of accident, convinced me that I was not totally wrong. An old man having suffered intolerable pain, and lost the use of his legs by the scurvy, took at night a pill of extract. opii, to alleviate his torment. He was so much relieved in his complaints, by this single dose, that I gave him a few small pills, with directions to take one three or four times a day: to my great, and very pleasing surprize, not only his pains left him, but the stiffness of his joints likewise; the blackness which had almost completely surrounded the knee, in a great measure disappeared; nor did I find any difficulty in keeping him sufficiently well, to remain on board, till we sailed for England.

'Encouraged by this unexpected success, I proceeded to extend the same practice to others in different states of the disease, till I ascertained the important fact, that opium, prudently administered, is capable of palliating, for *many days*, the most urgent symptoms of sea scurvy, at least in its incipient state; and thus enabling the poor sufferers to hold out till perhaps some hospitable shore may afford the only radical cure—dry air, moderate exercise, and plentiful diet.'

On the prevention of the disease he thinks, that captain Cook has said almost every thing that is necessary. The author has however ventured to add a few observations on the same subject, and which we believe will be found useful.

Though the proportion of either historical or practical matter be not great, the medical reader will meet with many judicious reflections scattered through this little tract.

In an advertisement the author announces a translation of the genuine works of Hippocrates, with his life.

ART. XII. *Outlines of a Course of Lectures on Chemistry*. By T. Garnett, M. D. 8vo. 176 pages. Price 4s. sewed. Liverpool, M'Creery; London, Cadell and Davis. 1797.

In teaching a science of so extensive a kind as that of chemistry, the utility of a full and clear explanation of the principal facts may be easily conceived. This is the leading object of the present performance, which is well arranged. It is, however, obviously better calculated for those who attend the author's lectures, and hear his explanations, than the general reader, though the latter may make use of it, and probably with advantage, as a mean of refreshing his memory.

As an example of the manner in which this text book is executed, we shall lay before the reader the author's observations on combustion and respiration, two processes which have a much greater resemblance than has been generally supposed.

P. 61.—‘ The following laws may be deduced from what has been said concerning combustion.

‘ 1. Combustion cannot take place without the presence of oxygen.

‘ 2. In every instance of combustion there is an absorption of oxygen.

‘ 3. In the products of combustion there is always an augmentation of weight, equal to the quantity of oxygen absorbed.

‘ 4. In every instance of combustion, light and heat are disengaged.

‘ The phenomena of combustion may be distinguished into three states, ignition, inflammation, and detonation. The first takes place when the combustible body is not in an aeriform state, nor capable of assuming that state; the second when the combustible body in the form of vapour, or gas, comes in contact with oxygen gas. The third is a sudden inflammation, which occasions a noise by the instantaneous formation of a vacuum. In the greatest number of instances in which detonation takes place, this phenomenon is produced by the combustion of hydrogen gas with oxygen.

‘ When we consider the phenomena of respiration, we shall find them very analogous to those of combustion. A candle will not burn, nor an animal live, in an exhausted receiver. When a candle is confined in a given quantity of atmospheric air, it will burn only for a certain time; and on examining the air in which it has burned, the oxygen gas is found to be all extracted, nothing remaining but azotic gas, and a quantity of carbonic acid gas; in the same manner, if an animal be confined in a given quantity of atmospheric air, it will live only a short time, and the air will have lost its oxygen, nothing remaining but azotic and carbonic acid gas.

‘ A candle will burn, and an animal live much longer in pure oxygen gas, than in the same quantity of atmospheric air.

‘ From considering the phenomena attendant on respiration, we may lay down the following general propositions.

‘ 1. An animal cannot live unless it be supplied with oxygen.

‘ 2. All animals do not require air of the same purity; birds require air of greater purity than man, or animals which live upon the surface of the earth; and those animals which live principally under ground, or which pass the winter in a torpid state, require an air much less pure than other animals.

‘ 3. The mode of respiration is different in different animals.

‘ The air which has served for respiration is found to contain a mixture of azotic and carbonic acid gas, with a small quantity of oxygen gas, and a considerable quantity of water is thrown off from the lungs in respiration.

‘ From a variety of facts it appears, that oxygen gas is decomposed in the lungs during respiration; a part of the oxygen unites with the iron contained in the blood, and converts it into an oxyd; another and greater portion unites with the carbon brought by the venous blood to the lungs, and forms carbonic acid

acid gas, while another portion of the oxygen unites with the hydrogen brought in the same manner, and forms water.

‘ A portion of this oxygen which unites with the iron and hydrogen, becomes fixed on these substances, and gives out the heat which supported it in a gaseous state, while the remainder, forming carbonic acid gas, which has a less capacity for heat than oxygen gas, gives out a part of its caloric. Thus respiration is the cause of a continual extrication of heat in the lungs, which being conveyed by the blood to all parts of the body, is a constant source of heat to the animal. We may therefore consider respiration as an operation in which oxygen gas is continually passing from the gaseous to the concrete state; it will therefore give out at every instant, the heat which it held in combination.

‘ These facts enable us to explain the reason why an animal preserves nearly the same temperature notwithstanding the various changes which occur in the temperature of the surrounding atmosphere, which enables the human body to bear vicissitudes that would otherwise destroy it. They likewise enable us to account for the difference of heat in different classes of animals; their heat being always proportioned to the quantity of oxygen gas which they decompose.

‘ Combustion and respiration are continually diminishing the quantity of oxygen contained in the atmosphere; if therefore the wise author of nature had not provided for it's continual reproduction, the air must soon become too impure to support life; but vegetables absorb water and carbonic acid gas, which substances they decompose, and appropriating the hydrogen of the former, and the carbon of the latter to their nourishment, exhale the oxygen gas in a very pure state:—thus animals and vegetables work the one for the other, and by this admirable reciprocity, the atmosphere is always kept sufficiently pure, and the equilibrium of its component parts constantly maintained.’

From this passage it will be sufficiently evident that the author's explanations are founded on the principles of the new chemistry.

ART. XIII. *An Essay on the Abuse of Spirituous Liquors; being an Attempt to exhibit, in its genuine Colours, its pernicious Effects upon the Property, Health, and Morals of the People, with Rules and Admonitions respecting the Prevention and Cure of this great national Evil.* By A. Fothergill, M. D. F. R. S. 8vo. 32 pages. Price 1s. Dilly. 1797.

No writer has exposed the pernicious consequences of an improper indulgence in the use of spirituous liquors with greater justness of reprehension, than the ingenious author of the present tract. In various ways, and with much industry, he has already indeed laboured to render this disgusting and detestable habit less prevalent among the inhabitants of this kingdom; and in the essay before us, we meet with the same zeal, and the same anxiety to preserve the health and morals of the people from suffering by the horrid custom of dram-drinking.

ART. XIV. *A System of comparative Anatomy and Physiology.* By B. Harwood, M. D. F. R. S. and F. S. A. &c. Vol. I. fascic. 1. Large 4to. 72 pages. 15 plates. Cambridge, Lunn; London, White. 1796.

WHEN this System of comparative Anatomy and Physiology was first announced to the public, we had expectations of being presented with an useful and interesting work, as the subject opened an extensive field for the exercise of ingenious disquisition, and curious observation. Judging from the *fasciculus* now before us, we cannot however say, that in the execution the Cambridge professor of anatomy has approached that point of practical utility, which we had reason to expect from his situation, and consequent opportunities of research.

The descriptions are in general much too confined to afford a sufficient view of many of the objects of his inquiry, and the anatomical investigations frequently too few for the decision of the opinions that are embraced. The stock of information, that is contained in this part, is indeed extremely small, and very little of it new. On subjects so interesting and important as those of the brain and organs of sense, we must confess ourselves disappointed in not finding something more than a mere dry detail of what has been described by different anatomical and physiological inquirers.

Though it is a conclusion made by other anatomists, as well as our author, that earth-worms, leeches, and some of those that are termed imperfect animals, are destitute of brain, we cannot think it altogether philosophical; since by possessing the power of moving, and sense of feeling, they seem at least to have something that serves the purpose of brain, although it may not exist in the common forms. The professor has not given us any satisfactory reason for this, any more than for another, viz. that intellect would seem to depend rather on the size of the whole, than the number of the parts of the brain. Its being found more divided in fishes does not appear to us to prove any such thing. The doctor's assertion would have had more weight, if it had rested upon the examination of animals, that approached nearer to man in sagacity.

On the purposes of the great quantity of blood circulating through the brain in man, doctor H. observes: p. 8.

'The quantity of blood, circulating through the brain, has attracted the notice both of ancient and modern anatomists; and though their calculations disagree, it is allowed by all, to be much more than proportionate to the mass through which it circulates. This circumstance has induced some authors to describe the brain as one large gland, of which the nerves are to be considered as excretory ducts. Their opinion is not supported by reason, analogy, or experiment: a work of greater importance is performed by the brain, than the mere separation of something from the blood. Why then is so large a portion of this essential fluid directed thither? This question has not hitherto, and possibly never will receive a satisfactory answer. Though a large determination of blood to the brain is indispensably necessary to prevent

prevent *deliquium*, yet the proper quantity cannot be much exceeded without considerable danger. And not only the quantity, but the velocity of the circulating fluid is limited. Beyond a certain point an excess or deficiency of either is fatal.*

This is, in fact, saying nothing. The professor might as well have told us, at once, that he did not know any thing about it.

In respect to the nerves, his conclusions are these: p. 10.

‘The nerves, which proceed immediately from the brain, are greater or smaller, as the sense, to which they are subservient, is more or less acute; with little, if any, reference to the size of the brain itself, or of the animal to which they belong* ; so that by inspecting these nerves only, the anatomist may be enabled to form a very probable conjecture of the comparative excellence of all the senses with which an animal is endowed.

‘The nerves, which derive their origin from the spinal marrow, have a twofold office assigned to them by nature; they not only constitute the universal sense of feeling, but are likewise the indispensable agents of all animal action, whether voluntary or involuntary. Their existence is manifested in the minutest portion of the largest body; and as the necessity of feeling, or performing certain functions of the animal œconomy, and of possessing the power of locomotion, is common to creatures of every dimension, the magnitude of these nerves bears no certain proportion to the size of the brain, and is regulated only by the bulk of the animal.’

On the human nose we also meet with an opinion, that has not been generally maintained by other anatomists. The author thinks it probable, that the soft thick membrane, lining the internal parts of the nose, receives the ramifications of the olfactory nerves in that part *only*, which covers the internal *nares* properly so called.

The reasons, which have induced the doctor to draw this conclusion, are the following: p. 15.

‘1st. The branches of the nerves have been traced so far by Hunter, Monro, and other anatomists, but no farther. It must therefore be doubtful, at least, whether they extend to the continuation of the membrane, in the surrounding cavities or sinuses.

‘2nd. If the external apertures of the nose be obstructed, we have very little, if any perception of scents, although the air has free access by the posterior openings†. From which we may infer, that the odoriferous particles must not only come into contact

‘* The optic nerve passing to the comparatively small eye of the elephant, is no larger than the nerve going to the human eye; but the nerves which arise from the *medulla spinalis* are in proportion to the size of the animal.’

‘† Animals, who are under the necessity of providing for their subsistence by the faculty of smelling, constantly breathe through the nose; which habit being natural to them, it is with great constraint and difficulty, that they can respire through the mouth, when the nose is forcibly held. Let any one try the experiment of holding a dog's nose, and he will be convinced of the truth of this observation.’

with,

with, but be applied successively, and in current to the membrane, before sensation is produced. Now as the *sinuses* communicate with no other part than the nostril, each of them by a single aperture, and that a small one, it is not possible to conceive, that the stream of air, diverted from its natural course, should make a circuit of the cavity, at the same instant passing, and repassing, in opposite directions, through the narrow channel.

‘ 3d. When sneezing is produced by any preternatural stimulus on the olfactory nerves, it may be suspended by pressure on the external alæ of the nose. This pressure affects the internal *nares*, not the cavities.

‘ 4th. The peculiarities of structure, which, in other animals, extend the surface of the olfactory membrane, are distinct from, and unconnected with the sinuses.’

Turning from this subject, in man, the professor proceeds to the quadrupeds of the class *mammalia*, and examines the conformation of their nose and olfactory bones, on the latter of which he supposes the acuteness of the sense of smell principally to depend. He here marks the structure, which differs materially in the different tribes, while in the same tribe the general resemblance is strong; ‘yet,’ says he, ‘in each species certain peculiarities are discoverable, which probably constitute their several degrees of sagacity.’

The olfactory organs in birds, fishes, and the amphibia are afterwards examined and described with tolerable accuracy, in the animals which the author has noticed, but these are by no means numerous. In the professor’s remarks on these organs in the different classes of animals, we meet with many important facts and conclusions; but few that have not been observed by other inquirers in the same track.

On the whole, we cannot perceive that, in the materials which constitute the present *fasciculus*, the doctor has employed any extraordinary industry of anatomical investigation, or exercised much ingenuity of research. The price of the work, however, demands exertion in both these respects.

Five shillings is charged for the *letter-press* of each *fasciculus*, which in the present amounts to about seventy pages. The work, when completed, will consist of ten *fasciculi*.

The plates, which are very well engraved, are offered to subscribers at 3l. 3s.

INVENTIONS AND DISCOVERIES.

ART. XV. *A History of Inventions and Discoveries.* By John Beckmann, public Professor of Economy in the University of Göttingen. Translated from the German, by W. Johnston. 3 Vols. 8vo. 1420 pages. Price 1l. 1s. in boards. Bell, Oxford-street. 1797.

It is probably a task of much greater difficulty than the general reader may be aware of, to trace successfully the periods, at which different inventions and discoveries have been made in the arts; and it

it certainly requires more perseverance, industry, and research, as well as a greater variety of knowledge, than may be sufficient for a judicious execution of many other performances. We have therefore great pleasure in finding, that the arduous inquiry has been undertaken by so accurate an observer and so able a scholar as professor Beckmann.

Of the origin of the arts in the eastern parts of the world our information is extremely limited; we indeed know little more, than that the first traces of them are to be met with in those nations, and that they were thence conveyed to the greeks and the romans. It is, consequently, from the important writings of the former, and the preserved details of the latter, that the historian must glean much of the materials, which are necessary for a work of the present kind. But even, in these sources, he will frequently meet with disappointment, or perplexing uncertainty, for it is unquestionably true, as the translator has well observed, that 'the pen of history has been more employed in recording the crimes of ambition and the ravage of conquerors, than in preserving the remembrance of those, who, by improving science and the arts, contributed to increase the conveniences of life, and to heighten its enjoyments.'

So little has hitherto been attempted in respect to forming a History of Inventions and Discoveries, that even the periods, at which many of a comparatively recent date were made, are by no means marked with any degree of certainty; of others the inventors names are unknown or disputed; and to some the claims of different countries are but very imperfectly determined.

Under these circumstances, we apprehend, no one can doubt the utility of such a history as the present, especially as it has been accomplished by a gentleman whose situation was, in so many respects, peculiarly favourable for the kinds of investigation that were requisite in it's compilation.

Of the original work the translator tells us that the author with great modesty gives it, pref. p. ix.—'the title of only *Collections towards a History of Inventions*: but as he has carefully traced out the rise and progress of all those objects which form the subject of his enquiry, from the earliest periods of their being known, as far as books supplied information, and arranged his matter in chronological order, the original title may admit, without being liable to much criticism, of the small variation adopted in the translation. The author, indeed, has not in these volumes comprehended every invention and discovery, but he has given an account of a great many, most of them very important; and it is not improbable that his labours in this respect may be continued. Should that be the case, and should the present work be favourably received, the rest of the original, when a sufficiency is published to form another volume, will be translated, and presented to the public in the like manner.'

In regard to the translator, we have but little to observe; he appears, so far as we are enabled to judge, to have performed his laborious task with sufficient fidelity and judgment; like many other useful labourers in the same field, he indeed sometimes lessens the merit of his translation, by adhering too closely to the idioms of the original.

original. Of this fault it would be easy to point out many instances, but in a translation, that in other respects seems so well executed, we think it unnecessary, and, in fact, of too little importance to be noticed in so particular a way. The first volume begins with an account of the invention of Italian book-keeping and its different applications; but the author is not so full on this as on many other subjects, some of which are, perhaps, of far less importance. Under the head 'Odometer' we meet with some anecdotes of the life of a mechanic of very uncommon talents, but which, we believe, are little known to the English reader. They are these:

Vol. I. p. 15.—'Hohlfeld was born of poor parents, at Hennenndorf, in the mountains of Saxony, in 1711. He learned the trade of lace-making at Dresden, and early discovered a turn for mechanics by constructing various kinds of clocks. From Dresden he removed to Berlin to follow his occupation. As he was an excellent workman, and invented several machines for shortening his labour, he found sufficient time to indulge his inclination for mechanics; and he made there, at the same time that he pursued his usual business, air-guns and clocks.

'In the year 1748 he became acquainted with the celebrated Sulzer, at whose desire he undertook the construction of a machine for noting down any piece of music when played on a harpsichord. A machine of this kind had been before invented by Mr. Von Unger; but Hohlfeld, from a very imperfect description, completed one without any other assistance than that of his own genius. Of this machine, now in possession of the academy of sciences at Berlin, Sulzer gave a figure, from which it was afterwards constructed in England. This ingenious piece of mechanism was universally approved, though several things may be wanting to render it complete; but no one was so generous as to indemnify the artist for his expences, or to reward him for his labour.

'About the year 1756, the Prussian minister, Count de Podewils, took him into his service, chiefly for the purpose of constructing water-works in his magnificent gardens at Gussow. There he invented his well-known threshing-mill, and another for chopping straw more expeditiously. He also displayed his talent for invention, by constructing a machine, which, being fastened to a carriage, indicates the revolutions made by the wheels. Such machines had been made before, but his far exceeded every thing of the like kind. Having lost this machine by a fire, he invented another, still simpler, which was so contrived as to be buckled between the spokes of the wheel. This piece of mechanism was in the possession of Sulzer, who used it on his tour, and found that it answered the intended purpose.

'In the year 1765, when the present duke of Courland, then hereditary prince, resided at Berlin, he paid a visit to Hohlfeld, and endeavoured to prevail on him to go to Courland, by offering him a pension of 800 Rix-dollars; but this ingenious man was so contented with his condition, and so attached to his friends, that he would not, merely for self-interest, quit Berlin. His refusal, however, obtained for him a pension of 150 dollars from the king.'

• Besides

• Besides the before-mentioned machines, he constructed, occasionally, several useful models. Among these were a loom for weaving figured stuffs, so contrived that the weaver had no need for any thing to shoot through the woof; a pedometer for putting in the pocket; a convenient and simple bed for a sick person, which was of such a nature that the patient, with the smallest strength, could at any time raise or lower the breast, and when necessary convert the bed into a stool; and a carriage so formed, that if the horses took fright, or ran away, the person in it could, by a single push, loosen the pole, and set them at liberty. The two last models have been lost.

• Every machine that this singular man saw, he altered and improved in the simplest manner. All his own instruments he made himself, and repaired them when damaged. But as he was fonder of inventing than of following the plans of others, he made them in such a manner that no one except himself could use them. Several of his improvements were, however, imitated by common workmen, though in a very clumsy manner. It is worthy of remark, that he never bestowed study upon any thing; but when he had once conceived an idea, he immediately executed it. He comprehended, in a moment, whatever was proposed; and, at the same time, saw how it was to be accomplished. He could, therefore, tell in an instant whether a thing was practicable: if he thought it was not, no persuasion or offer of money could induce him to attempt it. He never pursued chimæras, like those mechanics who have not had the benefit of education or instruction; and though this may be ascribed to the intercourse he had with great mathematicians and philosophers, there is every reason to believe, that he would have equally guarded against them, even if he had not enjoyed that advantage. The same quickness of apprehension which he manifested in mechanics, he shewed also in other things. His observations on most subjects were judicious, and peculiar to himself; so that it may be said, without exaggeration, that he was born with a philosophical mind.

• With regard to his moral character, he was very different from those of the same class. Though he still retained something of the manners of his former condition, his mild and civil deportment rendered his company and conversation agreeable. He possessed a good heart, and his life was sober and regular. Though he was every day welcome at the best tables, he staid for the most part at home, through choice; went to market for his own provisions, which he cooked himself; and was as contented over his humble meal as Curius was over his turnips.

• A little before his death, he had the pleasure of seeing a curious harpsichord he had made, and which was purchased by his prussian majesty, placed in an elegant apartment in the new palace at Potsdam. As he had for some time neglected this instrument, the too great attention which he bestowed on putting it in order, contributed not a little to bring on that disease which at last proved fatal to him. His clock having become deranged during his illness, he could not be prevented, notwithstanding the admonition of his friend and physician Dr. Stahl, from repairing it. Close applica-
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tion occasioned some obstructions which were not observed till too late; and, an inflammation taking place, he died, in the year 1771, at the house of count de Podewils, in the 60th year of his age.'

In tracing the rise of the art of refining gold and silver ores, by means of quick silver, professor B. remarks, that, although the first use of this substance is generally considered as a spanish invention, discovered about the middle of the sixteenth century; it is evident from Pliny, 'that the ancients were acquainted with amalgama, and its use, not only for separating gold and silver from earthy particles, but also for gilding.'

In the account of the introduction of tulips into Europe, and the tulipomania that succeeded in Germany and the Netherlands, there are many striking examples of the excessive folly and weakness, as well as the avarice, of mankind. During this rage a particular species of this flower, called *semper augustus*, frequently sold for 2000 florins; and it once happened, that there were only two roots of it to be had, the one at Amsterdam, and the other at Harlem. For a single root of this species, under these circumstances, we are told, that one person agreed to give 4000 florins, together with a new carriage, two gray horses, and a complete harness; and another twelve acres of land. Those who were not possessed of ready money even pledged their moveable and immoveable goods, house and land, cattle and clothes.

On the canary-bird, and on argol a weed used in dyeing, we have much useful and interesting matter; but on magnetic cures we have remarked nothing but what is very generally known. The article Secret Poison also presents the reader with much curious information, but of the most disgusting cast. Of the origin of the invention of bellows, which is unquestionably very old, the professor has not supplied much satisfactory elucidation. The invention of wooden bellows he, however, and we believe justly, ascribes to the germans. The description of them is thus given: p. 106.

'The whole machine consists of two boxes placed the one upon the other, the uppermost of which can be moved up and down upon the lower one, in the same manner as the lid of a snuff-box, which has a hinge, moves up and down when it is opened or shut; but the sides of the uppermost box are so broad as to contain the lower one between them, when it is raised to its utmost extent. Both boxes are bound together, at the smallest end, where the pipe is, by a strong iron bolt. It may readily be comprehended, that when both boxes fit each other exactly, and the upper one is raised over the under one, which is in a state of rest, the space contained by both will be increased; and consequently more air will rush in through the valve in the bottom of the lower one: and when the upper box is again forced down, this air will be expelled through the pipe. The only difficulty is to prevent the air, which forces its way in, from escaping any where else than through the pipe; for it is not to be expected that the boxes will fit each other so closely as to prevent entirely the air from making its way between them. This difficulty, however, is obviated by the following simple and ingenious method. On the inner sides of the uppermost box there are placed
moveable

moveable slips of wood, which, by means of metal springs, are pressed to the sides of the other box, and fill up the space between them. As these long slips of wood might not be sufficiently pliable to suffer themselves to be pressed close enough; and as, though planed perfectly straight at first, they would, in time, become warped in various directions, incisions are made in them across through their whole length, at the distance of from fifteen to eighteen inches from each other, so as to leave only a small space in their thickness, by which means they acquire sufficient pliability to be every where pressed close enough to the sides.'

The subject of coaches is treated in an able manner, and shows, with much clearness, the progressive advances of this kind of luxury in different nations.

The invention of the speaking trumpet has been by some given to Kircher; but, says our author, p. 164.—'When I unite all the evidence in favour of Kircher, it appears to be certain that he made known and employed the ear-trumpet earlier than the portable speaking-trumpet; that he, however, approached very near to the invention of the latter, but did not cause one to be constructed before sir Thomas Morland, to whom the honour belongs of having first brought it to that state as to be of real use.'

This is on the authority of the jesuit De Lanis, who has ably endeavoured to settle the dispute.

The origin of the diving-bell seems to be traced with tolerable accuracy; but the professor has not described the improvements of this bell since the time of Dr. Halley.

Some of the author's observations on sealing wax are too interesting to be passed over without notice.

P. 214. 'In Europe,' says he, 'as far as I know, wax has been every where used for sealing since the earliest ages. Writers on diplomatics, however, are not agreed whether yellow or white wax was first employed; but it appears that the former, on account of its low price, must have been first and principally used, at least by private persons. It is probable, also, that the seals of diplomas were more durable when they consisted of yellow wax; for it is certain that white wax, which loses a great part of its inflammable substance, is more brittle, and much less durable. Many seals also may at present be considered white which were at first yellow; for not only does wax highly bleached resume, in time, a dirty yellow colour, but yellow wax also, in the course of years, loses so much of its colour as to become almost like white wax. This perhaps may account for the oldest seals appearing to be of white, and the more modern of yellow wax. These, however, are conjectures which I submit, with deference, to the determination of those versed in diplomatics.

'In the course of time, sealing-wax was coloured red; and a good deal later, at least in Germany, but not before the fourteenth century, it was coloured green, and sometimes black. I find it remarked that blue wax never appears on diplomas; and I may, indeed, say, it is impossible it should appear; for the art of giving a blue colour to wax has never yet been discovered; and in old books, such as that of Wecker, we find no receipt for that purpose. Later authors have pretended to give directions how to communi-
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cate that colour to wax, but they are altogether false; for vegetable dyes, when united with wax, become greenish, so that the wax almost resembles the hip-stone; and earthy colours do not combine with it, but, in melting, fall again to the bottom. A seal of blue wax, not coloured blue merely on the outer surface, would be as great a rarity in the arts as in diplomatics, and would afford matter of speculation for our chemists; but I can give them no hopes that such a thing can ever be produced. The emperor Charles v in the year 1524 granted to Dr. Stockmar, of Nuremberg, the privilege of using blue wax in seals: a favour like that conferred, in 1704, on the manufactories in the principality of Halberstadt and the county of Reinsteint, to make indigo from minerals. It was, certainly, as difficult for the doctor to find blue wax for seals, as for the proprietors of these manufactories to discover indigo in the earth.

* Much later are impressions made on paste or dough, which perhaps could not be employed on the ancient parchment or the linen covers of letters, though in Pliny's time the paper then in use was joined together with flour paste. Proper diplomas were never sealed with wafers; and in the matchless diplomatic collection of H. Gatterer there are no wafer seals much above two hundred years old. From that collection I have now in my possession one of these seals, around the impression of which is the following inscription, *Secretum civium in Ulmia*, 1474; but it is only a new copy of a very old impression. Kings, however, before the invention of sealing-wax, were accustomed to seal their letters with this paste.

On corn-mills we have much valuable research; this subject, as well as that of alum, is handled at considerable length.

Falconry being now laid aside, is consequently become a subject of little importance; but the following passage is curious, as it shows on what slight grounds the changes of particular customs depends.

P. 331.—'In none of the sports of the field have the fair sex partaken so much as in falconry. The ladies formerly kept hawks, in which they greatly delighted, and which were as much fondled by those who wished to gain their favour as lap-dogs are at present*. What tended principally, however, to bring it into disuse, was the invention of gunpowder. After that, hawks were discarded, and the whole enjoyment of fowling was confined to shooting. Less skill and labour was indeed required in this new exercise; but the ladies abandoned the pleasures of the chase, because they disapproved of the use of fire-arms, which were attended both with alarm and danger.'

It is extremely probable, from the writings of different periods, that several kinds of instruments, for the purpose of measuring time, were invented, and made use of, previous to the introduction of clocks and watches. The early occurrence of the term *horologia* in different authors, in the opinion of the hon. Daines Barrington, from whom this article is chiefly taken, is, however, a circumstance of

* * *Mémoires sur l'ancienne chevalerie, par M. de la Curne de Sainte-Palaye.* Paris 1759—1781. 3 vol. 12mo. tom. iii. p. 183. In this work may be found many anecdotes respecting the taste of the french ladies for the sports of the field, in the ages of chivalry.'

little importance, as it evidently, he thinks, signified a dial as well as a clock.

P. 442.—‘Dante,’ says Mr. B., ‘seems to be the first author who hath introduced the mention of an *orologio*, that struck the hour, and which consequently cannot be a dial, in the following lines:

Indi come horologio che ne chiama,
Nel hora che la sposa d’Idio surge,
Amattinar lo sposo, perche l’ami.

Dante was born in 1265, and died in 1321, aged fifty-seven; striking clocks therefore could not have been very uncommon in Italy, at the latter end of the thirteenth century or the beginning of the fourteenth.’

There are many other subjects in this volume, which we have passed over, but which are not less important or less useful than those that are noticed.

In the second volume, the articles are equally numerous and not less valuable; we cannot, however, take notice of many of them.

On the invention of chimneys the author has bestowed considerable industry and research, and on the whole not without some success. The various passages that have been quoted from the greek writers, professor B. thinks, instead of showing, that the houses of the ancients were built with chimneys, rather prove the contrary; especially if what the roman authors have advanced on the subject be also attended to.

To the objections that may be made on the score of the word *caminus* signifying a chimney, our author answers

Vol. II. P. 77 — ‘*Caminus* signified, as far as I have been able to learn, first a chemical or metallurgic furnace, in which a crucible was placed for melting and refining metals. It signified also a smith’s forge. It signified likewise, without doubt, a hearth, or, as we talk at present, a chimney, which served for warming the apartment in which it was constructed; and for that purpose portable stoves or fire-pans were also employed. These were either filled with burning coals, or wood was lighted in them, and, when burned to coal, was carried into the apartment. In all these, however, there appears no trace of a chimney.’

The methods of warming apartments employed by the ancients are also adduced in support of the author’s opinion.

‘But,’ says the professor, Vol. II, P. 99,—‘though the great antiquity of chimneys is not disputed, too little information has been collected to enable us to determine, with any degree of certainty, the period when they first came into use. If it be true, as Du Cange, Vossius and others affirm, that apartments called *caminatae* were apartments with chimneys, these must, indeed, be very old; for that word occurs so early as the year 1069, and perhaps earlier; but it is always found connected in such a manner as contradicts entirely the above signification. Papias the grammarian, who wrote about 1051, explains the word *fumarium* by *caminus per quem exit fumus*; and Johannes de Janua, a monk, who about 1268 wrote his *Catholicon*, printed at Venice, says

Epicaustorium, instrumentum quod fit super ignem causa emittendi fumum. But these *fumaria* and *epicaustoria* may have been pipes by which the smoke, as is the case in our vent-furnaces, was conveyed through the nearest wall or window: at any rate this expression, with its explanations, can afford no certain proof that chimneys are so old; especially as later writers give us reason to believe the contrary. Riccobaldus de Ferrara, Galvano Fiamma or Flamma, a dominican monk from Milan, who died in 1344 professor at Pavia, and Giovanni de Mussis, who about 1388 wrote his *Chronicon Placentinum*, and all the writers of the fourteenth century, seem either to have been unacquainted with chimneys, or to have considered them as the newest invention of luxury.

That there were no chimneys in the tenth, twelfth and thirteenth centuries, seems to be proved by the so called *ignitegium*, or *pyritegium*, the curfeu-bell of the english, and *couvre-feu* of the French. In the middle ages, as they are termed, people made fires in their houses in a hole or pit in the centre of the floor, under an opening formed in the roof; and when the fire was burnt out, or the family went to bed at night, the hole was shut by a cover of wood. In those periods a law was almost every where established, that the fire should be extinguished at a certain time in the evening; that the cover should be put over the fire-place; and that all the family should retire to rest, or at least be at home. The time when this ought to be done was signified by the ringing of a bell. William the conqueror introduced this law into England in the year 1068, and fixed the *ignitegium* at seven in the evening, in order to prevent nocturnal assemblies; but this law was abolished by Henry I in 1100. From this ancient practice has arisen, in my opinion, a custom in Lower Saxony of saying, when people wish to go home sooner than the company choose, that they hear the *bürgerglocke*, burgher's bell. The ringing of the curfeu-bell gave rise also to the prayer-bell, as it was called, which has still been retained in some protestant countries. Pope John XXIII, with a view to avert certain apprehended misfortunes, which rendered his life uncomfortable, gave orders that every person, on hearing the *ignitegium*, should repeat the *Ave Maria* three times. When the appearance of a comet and a dread of the turks afterwards alarmed all Christendom, Pope Calixtus III increased these periodical times of prayer by ordering the prayer-bell to be rung also at noon.

The oldest certain account of chimneys he conceives to occur in the year 1347, which is on an inscription that either does or did exist at Venice; and which says, that many chimneys (*multi camini*) were thrown down by an earthquake.

On this subject the reader will find many more curious and interesting observations and reflections, as well as on those of quarantine, kermes, wire-drawing, saddles, stirrups, floating of wood, &c.

The article butter, which closes this volume, is ably investigated, and from the whole of his inquiry the learned author concludes, that it is neither a grecian nor a roman invention; but that the greeks were made acquainted with it by the scythians, the thracians,

thrarians, and the phrygians; and the romans, by the people of Germany. He also supposes, that even after they knew the art of making it, it was only employed as an ointment in their baths, and particularly in medicine. We shall insert the following remarks on this subject, as probably new. Vol. II, p. 414.

'It appears to me,' says the author, 'by the information which I have here collected from the ancients, that at the period when these authors wrote, people were not acquainted with the art of making butter so clean and so firm as that which we use on our tables. On the contrary, I am fully persuaded that it was rather in an oily state, and almost liquid. They all speak of butter as of something fluid. The moderns cut, knead, and spread butter; but the ancients poured it out as one pours out oil. Galen tells us, that, to make foot of butter, the butter must be poured into a lamp. Had the ancients used in their lamps hard or solid butter, as our miners use tallow in the lamps that supply them with light under ground, they would not have made choice of the expression *to pour out*. We are told that the elephants drank butter; and liquid butter must have been very familiar to the greek translators of the sacred Scriptures, when they could mention it as flowing in streams. Hecataeus, quoted by Athenæus, calls the butter with which the præonians anointed themselves, oil of milk. Casaubon observes on this passage, that the author makes use of these words, because butter was then employed instead of oil, and spoken of in the like manner, as was the case with sugar, which was at first considered to be a kind of honey, because it was equally sweet and could be applied to the same purposes. Hippocrates, on the like grounds, calls swine's seam, swine's oil. This explanation I should readily adopt, did not such expressions respecting butter, as one can apply only to fluid bodies, occur every where without exception. In warm countries, indeed, butter may be always in a liquid state; but I am of opinion that the ancients in general did not know by means of kneading, washing and salting, to render their butter so firm and clean as we have it at present. On this account it could not be long kept or transported, and the use of it must have been very much limited.'

The third volume contains twenty-two articles, among which, lending houses, chemical names of metals, book-censors, carp, mirrors, soap, artificial ice, lighting streets, &c. are very curious, and examined with much industry and learning.

On glass-cutting we have noticed some valuable remarks, but those on etching may perhaps be more interesting to the general reader.

Vol. III, p. 229.—'As that acid which dissolves siliceous earth, and also glass, was first discovered in the year 1771, by Scheele the chemist, in sparry fluor, one might imagine that the art of engraving with it upon glass could not be older. It has indeed been made known by many as a new invention; but it can be proved that it was discovered so early as the year 1670, by the before-mentioned artist Henry Schwanhard. We are told, that some aqua regia having fallen by accident upon his spectacles, the glass was corroded by it; and that he thence learned to make a liquid by which he could etch writing and figures upon plates

of glass. How Schwanhard prepared this liquid I find no where mentioned; but, at present, we are acquainted with no other acid but that of sparry fluor which will corrode every kind of glass; and it is very probable that his preparation was the same as that known to some artists as a secret in 1721. The inventor, however, employed it to a purpose different from that for which it is used at present.

* At present the glass is covered with a varnish, and those figures which one intends to etch are traced out through it; but Schwanhard, when the figures were formed, covered them with varnish, and then by his liquid corroded the glass around them; so that the figures, which remained smooth and clear, appeared, when the varnish was removed, raised from a dim or dark brown. He, perhaps, adopted this method in order to render his invention different from the art known long before of cutting the figures on the glass as if engraven. Had he been able, however, to investigate properly what accident presented to him, he might have enriched the arts with a discovery which acquired great reputation to a chemist, a hundred years after.

‘I mentioned this old method of etching in relief to our ingenious Klindworth, who possesses great dexterity in such arts, and requested him to try it. He drew a tree with oil varnish and colours on a plate of glass; applied the acid to the plate in the usual manner, and then removed the varnish. By these means a bright, smooth figure was produced upon a dim ground, which had a much better effect than those figures that are cut into the glass. I recommend this process, because I am of opinion that it may be brought to much greater perfection; and Mr. Renard, that celebrated artist of Strasburgh, whose thermometers with glass scales, in which the degrees and numbers are etched, have met with universal approbation, was of the same opinion, when I mentioned the method to him while he resided here, banished from his home by the disturbances in his native country.’

Our limits here compel us to take leave of an author, from whose learning and industry we have derived much entertainment and instruction. In doing this we must, however, hope, that the ingenious professor will proceed in his useful, though laborious undertaking, so as to render it really deserving of the dignified title which the translator has here bestowed upon it. A. R.

THEOLOGY.

ART. XVI. *Historical and familiar Essays, on the Scriptures of the New Testament.* By John Collier, Author of *Essays on the Jewish History and Old Testament*. In two vols. 8vo. 1086 p. Scarlett, 1797.

WE perceive no peculiar propriety in the title which this author has given his work. Instead of ‘Familiar Essays’ upon the New Testament, the reader is presented with a kind of paraphrastic narrative of the life and actions of Christ; grounded, with respect to the facts, on the histories of the evangelists, but dressed in modern style, and re-
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lated with the parading verbosity of a declaimer, rather than with the majestic simplicity of an apostle. Where Christ himself is introduced as speaking, Mr. C. has not, indeed, allowed himself so wide a latitude of amplification as Dr. Harwood took in his 'Liberal Translation;' but his deviations from the original, and the perpetual interposition of his own conceptions among those of the evangelists, give a heterogeneous appearance to the whole performance, which will be offensive to readers of correct taste. Another more serious inconvenience attends this method of exhibiting the scripture-story. The original narrative, thus garbled, and partially exhibited, is seen only under the aspect which suits the writer's opinions, and may, possibly, in many particulars, mislead the reader's judgment. There is the more danger of this, as the author has made no references to the chapters of the gospels, from which his facts are taken, to assist those who are imperfectly conversant with the Scriptures in distinguishing the comment and glossary from the text. Of the manner in which he indulges himself in excursions beyond the authority of his guides, the attentive reader will find some examples in the following passage, at the close of the narrative of our Saviour's infancy and childhood.

Vol. 1, p. 53. 'After this they set off together on their return home, and Jesus, by his dutiful submission and filial love, added the sanction of example to the obligations of obedience and subjection. The early part of his life, thus spent in domestic privacy, discovered many marks of a sublime and heavenly genius, but it was chiefly noticed for his affectionate and dutiful behaviour to his parents; for although he knew he was the Messiah, and appointed heir of all things, yet in private life he was cheerfully obedient to Joseph and Mary.

'Though the account given of his person is so much doubted, there is an assemblage of ideas which form a portrait one cannot but admire. "In beauty he surpassed the children of men—his size rather tall and comely—there was something in his countenance you would both love and fear—his look innocent—eye lively—courteous in admonishing—terrible in reproof—in speaking, modest and wise." The Scriptures only say, "that he increased in wisdom and stature, and in favour with God and man." We have sadly to lament, that the evangelists, especially John (his beloved disciple) should not have indulged us with a few particulars respecting his daily social habits and duties, in order to display his opening genius in the morning of life, amidst the still scenes of retirement, the humble tile of industry, intermingled with unfeigned piety, social endearments, and fervent prayer. Passions under such controul, a genius so divine, would exert itself more and more over the feebleness of youth and the disadvantages of obscurity, and must every day have extorted the confession, "That the grace of God was with him." We should surely have seen a picture of those tender feelings of pity, friendship, and love, which console, and so alleviate the sad necessities of life.

'In this peaceful retirement (where he continued eighteen years more) he could give no umbrage to his enemies; the news of his birth had time to circulate, and his countrymen had leisure to examine the prophecies respecting him.

'As the son of man, "a man like other men," Jesus thus progressively advanced through infancy and childhood to youth and riper years,

‘ Silent, indeed, are all the evangelists in relating this early part of his history. From these very few anecdotes, having now attended him to the thirtieth year of his life, the jewish sacerdotal age, when the priest was admitted as a public teacher, we are henceforward to behold him in a far more exalted point of view, in the exercise of his high prophetic office and ministry, opening his credentials as a divine and public instructor, opposing the tradition of the elders, their ignorance, pride, and superstition; combating the corruptions of judaism; by new motives and discoveries, explaining the duties of life, and enforcing the practice of virtue; overturning the religion of his country with success, and by means imperceptible; appealing for the truth of his doctrine to its divine original, its purity and excellence; to miracles performed before enemies and friends, a crowd of witnesses; and to a long chain of prophecy, the fulfilment of which they would see, day after day, accomplished in his subsequent life and public ministration.

‘ At this time Jesus walked down from Galilee to Bethabara, on the banks of Jordan, to receive the glories of his inauguration, and the testimony of God. After which, without reserve, he opened his commission, to the view and examination of all; from morning till night taught daily in their streets, and exchanged Nazareth for Jerusalem.’

In those parts of the work, at least, in which the author relies upon other evidence than the New Testament, he ought to have produced his vouchers. When he wrote, that the number of the evangelists was prophesied of by Ezekiel, that *three* of the evangelists were Christ’s constant companions, that Matthew wrote his gospel in the year 38, Luke in the year 53, and Mark in 63; that Paul was beheaded at Aquæ Salvæ, three miles from Rome, in the year 66, on the 29th of June; that Peter was crucified at Rome, with his head downwards, on the very same day, and that his body was buried in the *Vatican* at Rome: it might have been a satisfaction to some of the more inquisitive of his readers, who are in the habit of requiring proofs of assertions, had he condescended to give them his authorities, and particularly had he informed them, how long before the death of Peter the *Vatican* was built. The story of letters, said to have passed between Christ and Abgarus, king of Edessa, though related and credited by Eusebius, and after him by several other writers, is now universally regarded by protestants as a legendary tale; yet, such is this writer’s credulity, that he embraces the story as true; and such his care of his reader’s faith, that he gives no intimation that it’s truth has ever been questioned: he even gives his passport to the fable of the handkerchief, presented to Abgarus, prince of Osroëne, by Christ himself, on which was an impression of his face, and gravely informs his reader, that this handkerchief is still shown as a sacred relic at Rome.

From the preceding account, it will be easily perceived, that this writer is not a very rigorous observer of the precept, ‘ Prove all things.’ The latter part of the work, which gives a summary view of the design and contents of the several epistles, is more satisfactory. We cannot, however, on the whole, recommend the publication as calculated to promote a correct acquaintance with the Scriptures; or, though the author appears to possess a ready command of words, can
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we, without many exceptions, give him credit for grammatical accuracy. Such errors as, *was wrote, had eat, might be forgot*, are not unfrequent; and both redundancies and deficiencies often occur, such as the reader will easily detect in the following paragraph.

Vol. II, p. 308. 'The jews, who, on his first arrival at Ephesus, had heard him with pleasure, when they noticed his preaching among them, "salvation," without the necessity of first conforming to the law of Moses, they became violent persecutors of him—he was, therefore, compelled to desert their party, leave the synagogue, and he separated his disciples from them, and for two years after taught in the school of a philosopher, named Tyrannus, probably a christian convert, and one of his disciples.'

The work is very neatly printed.

ART. XVII. *National Sins considered, in two Letters to the Rev. Thomas Robinson, Vicar of St. Mary's, Leicester, on his serious Exhortation to the Inhabitants of Great Britain, with Reference to the Fast: By Benjamin Flower. To which are added, a Letter from the Rev. Robert Hall to the Rev. Charles Simeon; and Reflections on War, by the late Rev. W. Law. 8vo. 108 pages. Pr. 2s. 6d. Cambridge, Lunn; London, Robinsons. 1796.*

THESE letters to Mr. Robinson have already appeared in a provincial newspaper, entitled the Cambridge Intelligencer, of which Mr. F. is the respectable and animated editor. The gentleman to whom they are addressed appears to be inspired with a considerable degree of filial piety to the establishment of which he is a member. Mr. F. agrees with the reverend preacher in his general censures; he acknowledges the existence, alas! of much national impiety, and, like him, fervently exhorts to immediate repentance and reformation. Where then is the difference between these gentlemen? After many pious anathemas against the french, Mr. Robinson turns his attention to his own country, and laments 'the growth of infidelity, the insatiable thirst of gain, the pride, luxury, &c. which pervade all ranks, the neglect and contempt of the sacred day and public worship of Almighty God.' 'Yes,' says Mr. F., 'I agree with you concerning the existence of these evils, and mourn with you over the extent of them; you have mentioned,' he continues, 'our insatiable thirst for gain: under this head I beg leave to particularize that infernal traffic in the flesh and blood of our fellow-creatures—the SLAVE TRADE.' Mr. Robinson, we presume, had never thought of this; and it certainly was kind in our author to remind him of it, against a second edition of his Exhortation. Again: the holy ecclesiastic mentioned 'the contempt of the public worship of Almighty God:' this immediately brings to the recollection of Mr. F. another national sin of no ordinary enormity, which the preacher had totally forgotten; it was surely very kind to remind him of it, namely, 'the crime of PERJURY, which is so common in CHURCH and STATE.' On this subject we cannot forbear copying a passage, not from these letters, but from the spirited and elaborate preface which introduces them.

P. xiii. 'In a former work, I have treated somewhat at large—the nature of ECCLESIASTICAL OATHS and SUBSCRIPTIONS, and examined those various apologies which have been made by learned

men, for their shocking practice of subscribing and swearing to articles they do not believe. That work, considering the circumstances of the times, has been received by the public, far more favourably than I could have expected. The arguments I have there made use of stand uncontroverted. I have therefore a right to repeat the melancholy inference, and to assert, respecting the various apologies for subscription, all of which are agreeable to the principles (if such notions deserve the name) laid down by that champion for ecclesiastical prevarication and perjury, Dr. Paley,—“ If *these* constitute christianity, may God of his infinite mercy, preserve mankind from embracing it! May infidelity triumph over its destruction! No—this is not christianity, but a system *without a name*, built upon the ruins of common sense, and common honesty!”

‘ In reflecting on this subject, I cease to wonder at the habitual influence of such sentiments on the conduct of those who hold them. I cease to wonder, when I see such men as Dr. Paley and bishop Watson, spostatizing from many excellent sentiments they once professed, and floating down the stream of general corruption. The former, it is well known, has joined an abominable Reevean association, and has exerted himself in forwarding their *persecuting* schemes. He has been rewarded for his services, by an additional valuable piece of preferment, and has again subscribed, and solemnly declared before God, “ his unfeigned assent and consent,” to articles, of which he is as rooted an unbeliever, as any unitarian dissenter from the church. The reward, liberal as it may seem, is poor, when we consider the sacrifices made to obtain it. The bishop of Llandaff must feel hurt, that he has not been so fortunate. Although he veered about to the minister at the commencement of the war, and has since been guilty of the meanness of *personally applying to him for farther preferment in the church*; (I know this for a fact) the minister has not thought the apostate worth paying; and I cannot but admire the good sense of Mr. Pitt in this respect, in refusing to reward the man he despises. When I consider the conduct of these men, I cease to wonder, that while they are defending, (and well defending) the out-works of christianity, they are destroying the internal fabric. They appear to wish well to the system, so far as it may secure them wealth and worldly honour, but are not very unwilling to relinquish it, when standing in the way of their interest.’

In these letters, Mr. F. professes, and we have not the slightest reason to discredit his profession, an ardent love to the british constitution *in it's purity*: he seems to be deeply impressed with a sense of religion, and writes with the ardour and integrity of a philanthropist.

The letter from Mr. Hall to the rev. Charles Simeon contains a vindication of the dissenters of Cambridge in general, and of himself in particular, from an illiberal and calumnious insinuation, which Mr. S. had thrown out from his pulpit, respecting some *clandestine artifices* which the dissenters had employed to seduce people from the established church. Mr. Hall requires his opponent to establish the truth of his assertion, by naming one single instance of an attempt on the part of the dissenters, to obtain profelytes by any other means than the fair and open avowal of their sentiments. ‘ I believe,’ says Mr. Hall, ‘ you will not be disposed to make the same demand on *your* part;

part; or, if you should, *I am prepared to give you a fuller answer than you wish.* P. 78.

The Reflections on War, which fill up this pamphlet, are extracted from a 'Serious Address to the Clergy,' by Mr. Law, first published in 1761.

ART. XVIII. *The Doctrines of the Church of Rome examined.* By the Rev. B. J. Bromwich, M. A. 8vo. 87 pages. Price 2s. Pridden. 1797.

THIS little protestant manual is written with great seriousness, and with a benevolent design; but the reader must not expect to find novelty of argument or of illustration. The style is plain and familiar; but we doubt neither the subject treated of, nor the manner of treating it, will excite much of the public attention.

ART. XIX. *Sermons on the Character of Christ.* By John Martin. 8vo. 472 pa. Price 7s. 6d. in boards. Martin. 1793.

THE date of these sermons might seem to have entitled them to earlier notice: on perusing them, we do not, however, find much occasion to apologize for having overlooked them so long. A more flimsy and insipid volume of sermons has scarcely ever come before us. The author, it is true, literally preaches Christ: for through a large volume he discourses upon his pre-existence, incarnation, childhood, baptism, temptation, miracles, preaching, prophecy, sufferings, resurrection, ascension, intercession, and second coming: but it is, throughout, in a strain, which can neither gratify the scholar, nor enlighten the ignorant. Nothing, that can deserve the name of criticism, or argument, is to be found in the volume; and it is equally deficient in that kind of practical address, which is adapted to excite pious sentiments, and promote virtuous manners. The author entertains a great contempt for those philosophers, who, in his pretty phrase, are *intimados of nature*; and he does not think much better of those great scholars, who study the Scriptures in their own [that is the Scripture's own] *vernacular* language.

'It is idle,' he observes, p. 97, 'to imagine, that very important consequences will follow, merely because any man is versed in hebrew, chaldee, and greek. For others, as learned as himself, will always differ from him in theological opinions; and how are the bulk of mankind to settle the dispute? Besides; every body knows, or may know, that they who have read any part of the Scriptures in their own vernacular language, have as grossly misinterpreted the sacred text, as those who were never able to read it, but by the medium of an imperfect translation. Some of the most important controversies now subsisting, are those in which, on both sides, the sacred text is allowed to be well translated.'

'For my own part, I see no reason why any person who has a taste for theological understanding, should be checked in his pursuit after a critical knowledge of the original text; but if some institutions are very likely to send out the best of pastors, or the best of writers, on religious subjects, it will be to many a pleasing disappointment.'

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In another place he says, p. 414. 'I am not ashamed to own, I would rather read *Cocceius* than *Grotius*, and the expository notes of Mr. Hervey, than the deliberate, but dull commentaries of Mr. Locke.

'If a man is well acquainted with Jesus Christ, and hath an ardent love for his person, government, and grace, though he may misapply particular passages of Scripture, yet, that man will rarely err against the general tenor, and grand design of the sacred writings. But if any commentator, or preacher, is fond of his own reputation in this world; if he shudders at the thought of following the outline of any system of religion, or of allowing there are any mysteries in christianity; if he thinks that whatever is beyond the literal sense of Scripture must be absurd: if he endeavours to make the sacred text a vehicle to convey his latitudinarian sentiments, and is strongly inclined to meet half way, those socinians, deists, and free-thinkers, who have more interest, and influence in this world, than some better characters, who are, by the wisdom of God, thrown into the shades of life; was he the most learned man in Europe, his labours would be of little value, and his example, were we able to follow it, would be unworthy of our imitation.'

This writer takes great pains to inform his readers, that he is not one of those who 'plume themselves upon being very rational.' He is fond of mysterious doctrines; and the more mysterious the better. 'The sonship of Christ,' says he, 'is far above our comprehension: I am glad it is: for could we, with our slender abilities, comprehend this mystery, the object comprehended by us would sink in our esteem. You will not wish me to explain what I never professed to understand: on this subject, I am merely a believer.'—From such a teacher, our readers will not expect much illumination; they will therefore readily excuse us, if we take our leave of him abruptly, and without ceremony.

M. D.

ART. XX. *A Sermon preached before the Epping Troop of West Essex Yeomen Cavalry, on Monday the 12th of June, 1797, by the Rev. T. A. Abdy, M. A. Rector of Thoydon Garnon, alias Cooperfale, in the County of Essex.* 8vo. 18 pa. 1797.

MR. A. informs us 'that the only merit' of his sermon 'consists in speaking plain truths in plain language.'—That the sentiments advanced in it are *plain*, that is *common* enough, we are ready to allow, for to use an expression of Dr. Johnson, they are "such as many men, many women, and many children might produce," without the smallest exertion of intellect or ability. Our preacher, however, is yet to learn, that it by no means follows, because a sentiment is common or vulgar, that it is therefore *true*. If he had studied logic, he would find, that this remark strongly applies to his leading proposition, 'that *reform* leads to *ruin*;' for that cannot possibly be *reform*, which has any such tendency. He exclaims in the same *plain* style, 'Happy! *too* happy England!'—We beg to know whether it is a *truth*, that a nation or even an individual can be *too* happy? and he very strangely adds—'Happy! *too* happy did you but know the value of the blessings you possess!'—So that it follows, that
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the knowledge of the blessings we possess, of which it seems we are ignorant, would render us *too happy*, and it must therefore be an evil. It is, however, some consolation, that the reader need not be very apprehensive of this evil coming upon him from the perusal of Mr. A.'s sermon.

Some persons will doubt whether it be a *truth*, that this incomparable constitution 'respects our *religious* as well as civil rights,' while our preacher admits, that 'it is ordained, that the *rites of the church of England* be observed by those who interfere in matters of government;' and it certainly is *not a truth*, however inconsistent with the rest of the system, that 'those who are entrusted to *form* the laws, must conform to the established religion of the country.' Several others of Mr. A.'s *plain truths* are at best but of a *dubious* character; such as that which asserts, that there may be observed among bees a degree of *discipline* unknown in kingdoms; and that the enemies of the french republic were '*created* by their own unprincipled ambition.'

The style of Mr. A. is as *plain* in one sense, we allow, as his sentiments: some of it is copied from the news-papers, especially when he speaks of the *expatriated* israelites, a vile french phrase to be used by so orthodox a preacher; and some of it from the chess-board, when he tells us 'the simple, the weak, and the ignorant fill up *their respective checks* in life;' but it is not always so *plain* in every sense as grammatical critics would wish it, as when he urges his hearers 'to *work out* the *claims* they make to everlasting happiness,' &c.

When Mr. A. next resolves to print, we advise him to submit his manuscript to the perusal of some more competent judges than those at whose request the present sermon is published, the Epping cavalry!

B.

BOOK-KEEPING.

ART. XXI. *Book-keeping Reformed: or the Method of Double-Entry so simplified, elucidated, and improved, as to render the Practice easy, expeditious, and accurate:* By J. H. Wicks, Master of the Boarding School, Englefield-House, Egham, Surry. 4to. 159 pages. Price 7s. 6d. in boards. Longman. 1797.

We do not perceive in this work any improvements of sufficient importance to deserve the name of *reform*. That on which the author seems to found his claim, is an arrangement of two columns in the journal, one for recording the amount of goods, cash, and bills received, and the other for the amount of those delivered: the difference between these two columns shows the balance of debts for or against the merchant; a knowledge which may sometimes afford satisfaction, and also prove useful in checking other parts of the work. We see no objection against the adoption of this plan, unless that it in some degree increases the labour of book-keeping.

In the other parts of this work we find very little new, or even modern; the materials, like those of Mair and other old systems, are a series of fictitious transactions, not very similar to the occurrences

rences of real business; and Mr. W. has not even availed himself of subsidiary books, which are so useful in extensive commerce, and which so universally obtain in modern practice. This work, however, evinces both industry and a correct knowledge of accounts, and of the principles of double entry.

K.

POLITICS. POLITICAL ECONOMY.

ART. XXII. *Two Letters on the Conduct of our Domestic Parties, with Regard to French Politics; including "Observations on the Conduct of the Minority. in the Session of 1793."* By the late Right Hon. Edmund Burke. 8vo. 199 p. Price 3s. Rivingtons. 1797.

THIS pamphlet consists of three parts, the preface, by the editor, and observations on the conduct of Mr. Fox, and a letter, occasioned by a speech delivered in the house of lords by the duke of N—k, in the debate concerning lord Fitzwilliam, by Mr. Burke.

The preface fills seventy-two pages. It takes a view of Mr. B.'s conduct since the commencement of the french revolution; asserts it's perfect consistency with the declaration of the whigs, written by him, in the year 1770, under the title of 'Thoughts on the Causes of the present Discontents;' ascribes all the actions of Mr. B. to the most pure and noble motives; and informs us, that had not his son been unexpectedly snatched from him by death, it was determined to raise Mr. B. to the peerage, as well as settle upon him a handsome fortune.

The attack on Mr. Fox has been already published, by the most shameless treachery and abuse of confidence, by Mr. Owen, which we have already noticed, (see Vol. xxv, page 322) not because we did not feel a just indignation at conduct so atrocious and ingratitude so foul, but because the public demanded, that what was not disowned by so great an author, should not be overlooked by us. In addition to what we have already observed upon this part of the publication before us, we can only remark, that a letter to the duke of Portland is now given, which proves, that this accusation of Mr. Fox was not intended for publication, but was meant as Mr. B.'s justification to his friend of his conduct to one who had been long their leader.

Viewing the matter in this light, we do not see much that is censurable in Mr. B.'s proceeding; and although the facts, which are made the basis of this accusation of Mr. Fox, increase our admiration of that great statesman's wisdom and virtue; yet, as Mr. B. regarded the tendency of his conduct as very mischievous, we see not why he should be blamed for stating his opinion to their common friend.

The editor of this publication tells us, that after Owen had published this tract, Mr. B. watched the public papers, anxious to discover, and determined to notice, any explanation that might be made of the mission of Mr. Adair to St. Petersburg. The editor appears by his statement to insinuate, that no explanation was made. Now we saw a letter from Mr. Adair, in the Morning Chronicle, denying the fact of which Mr. Fox is accused by Mr. B.; and if Mr. B. were determined to retract any error on the subject into which he had been betrayed, as the editor says, we think the denial of Mr. Adair should not have passed for nothing with him. It belongs to Mr. Adair, to demand an explanation of this conduct of the editor, or tamely to submit

submit to the accusation, that he, a second time, brings before the public, with insinuations of it's being confirmed and established by the silence of Mr. Fox.

In all material respects this is the same as that published by Owen, in the infamous manner we have alluded to, but the language is more correct and more flowing. It is, however, entirely destitute of those dazzling flashes, and brilliant ornaments which distinguish the writings which Mr. B. intended for the public eye. We are convinced, that even the eloquence of Mr. B. was *splendid through effort*; and although we are little inclined to credit a man, whose conduct has been so base, we cannot disbelieve what Owen stated in his preface, concerning the laboured corrections and eternal improvements Mr. B. made in his works, even after they were put into the hands of the printer.

Indeed genius is no more than the *power of applying the mind*: even the treasures of the imagination are *collected store*; and the man, who is capable of *attention*, and whose judgment, or taste, which is nothing but judgment applied in a particular direction, is correct, may imitate Newton or Milton, with equal success. Let no one then despair of attaining eminence, who feels himself capable of labour and thought; no man was ever born a poet or a philosopher, and the capacity, which will raise a man to the character of the one, will not refuse to advance him to the dignity of the other.

The letter on occasion of the duke of N——k's speech, the editor informs us, was intended for the public eye, but was laid aside, as the speech quickly passed away and was forgotten.

We must say it is a trifling and no very splendid performance, although it was evidently meant to strike the fancy of it's readers, by the power of ridicule, and the vivacity of wit. The matter is nothing. It may be stated in one word. Mr. B. considers himself as the defender of ancient orders: but he thinks the duke of N——k and the king of Prussia have adopted maxims of conduct, which tend to degrade lords and kings; and Mr. B. says no efforts of his mind, in the cause, can preserve what the principals are determined to destroy.

The letter opens with some lively and familiar colloquial humour, in which our premier duke receives a gentle castigation, on account of his midnight watchings in the study of the constitution, his zeal for the privileges of the commons, displayed in contested elections, his eloquence, his port, and his toasts.

In this humour for raillery, our author suffers nothing to escape him, the virtue of Paine, the fatalism of Priestley, the erudition, the eloquence, and the wit of Mr. Erskine, all meet with respectful attention. Mr. B. indeed, in a manner somewhat different from that of courtiers, expresses for these gentlemen his high consideration.

Mr. B. says there was a time when station was every thing, character and talent nothing; but he advises the privileged orders no longer to rely on this ancient prejudice, for the time is come, he adds, which demands, that the *man* should be something, in order to make the *lord* respected. He thinks the british constitution an admirable fabric; but nothing can save it, if those on whose shoulders it rests be worthless and contemptible. This is beautifully illustrated, in a passage which we present to the admiration of our readers, confessing, however, that they will not find it's equal in the pamphlet besides.

P. 112.—‘ What I say of the german princes, that I say of all the other dignities and all the other institutions of the holy roman empire. If they have a mind to destroy themselves, they may put their advocates to silence and their advisers to shame. I have often praised the aulic council. It is very true I did so. I thought it a tribunal, as well formed as human wisdom could form a tribunal, for coercing the great, the rich and the powerful; for obliging them to submit their necks to the imperial laws, and to those of nature and of nations; a tribunal well conceived for extirpating peculation, corruption, and oppression, from all the parts of that vast heterogeneous mass called the germanic body. I should not be inclined to retract these praises upon any of the ordinary lapses into which human infirmity will fall; they might still stand, though some of their *conclusums* should taste of the prejudices of country or of faction, whether political or religious. Some degree, even of corruption, should not make me think them guilty of suicide; but if we could suppose, that the aulic council, not regarding duty, or even common decorum, listening neither to the secret admonitions of conscience, nor to the publick voice of fame, some of the members basely abandoning their post, and others continuing in it, only the more infamously to betray it, should give a judgment so shameless and so prostitute, of such monstrous and even portentous corruption, that no example in the history of human depravity, or even in the fictions of poetick imagination, could possibly match it; if it should be a judgment which with cold unfeeling cruelty, after long deliberations should condemn millions of innocent people to extortion, to rapine, and to blood, and should devote some of the finest countries upon earth to ravage and desolation—does any one think that any servile apologies of mine, or any strutting and bullying insolence of their own, can save them from the ruin that must fall on all institutions of dignity or of authority that are perverted from their purport to the oppression of human nature in others, and to its disgrace in themselves. As the wisdom of men makes such institutions, the folly of men destroys them. Whatever we may pretend, there is always more in the soundness of the materials, than in the fashion of the work. The order of a good building is something. But if it be wholly declined from its perpendicular; if the cement is loose and incoherent; if the stones are scaling with every change of the weather, and the whole toppling on our heads, what matter is it whether we are crushed by a corinthian or a doric ruin? The fine form of a vessel is a matter of use and of delight. It is pleasant to see her decorated with cost and art. But what signifies even the mathematical truth of her form? What signify all the art and cost with which she can be carved, and painted, and gilded, and covered with decorations from stern to stern; what signify all her rigging and sails, her flags, her pendants and her streamers? what signify even her cannon, her stores and her provisions, if all her planks and timbers be unsound and rotten?

‘ *Quamvis Pontica pinus*

‘ *Silvæ filia nobilis*

‘ *Jactes & genus & nomen inutile.*’

A passage, not destitute of splendour, recommended to particular notice by the remarks of the editor, on the state of Europe at the
com-

commencement of the french revolution, follows the glowing paragraph we have just quoted; but although we admire the eloquence, we give no credit to the *truth* of the representation. Indeed, Mr. B. spends himself rather in showing how the happiness of Europe might be destroyed, than in stating in what it consisted.

It was the day of rejoicing and of triumph to the privileged orders. This is not denied; but in the name of reason, religion, and humanity, what was the condition of the mass of human beings? Are they to be disregarded? Is their name to be trampled in the dust, by the advocate of order and of christianity? We confess we are indignant, when we read such attacks upon insulted humanity. If Mr. B. wish to show us a state of Europe, the subject of triumph and exultation, let him show us cottages stored with plenty, industry rewarded, the ground displaying a cultivated surface, and gladness animating the countenances of the million.

But, had he presented to the *moral eye*, to which he says the picture of Europe was glorious, the day before the great revolution, the true picture of society on that happy continent, we greatly fear, the vision would have appeared revolting and horrible. The *moral eye* of Mr. B. would not, we believe, have been ravished with the sight of the contents of it's prisons, it's hospitals, it's cottages, it's mines, it's fleets, and it's armies; and after so sweeping an exception, what is left for admiration? kings, lords, pensioners, merchants, and priests.

We seriously fear, that Mr. B.'s eye was dim through prejudice or passion, or we think his morality would, on this occasion, have checked his exultation.

The last words of this publication are, 'Adieu, my dreams are ended.' Though far enough from adopting the opinions of our great author, far enough from receiving his dreams for the direction of our conduct, or as the truths of a pure philosophy, we read the words with emotion; for he pleasantly tells his dreams, they furnish him with much for amusement, and not a little for admiration. But we are comforted. He has dreamed again, and we shall soon have to give an account of more of the midnight meditations of this distinguished genius, whose eloquence has subdued and guided a mighty people.

ART. XXIII. *An Appeal on the Subject of the English Constitution.*
By John Cartwright, Esq. 8vo. 74 pages. Price 6d.
Boston, Stainbank; London, Johnson. 1797.

THE publication of this appeal is owing to the following circumstance.

A meeting was called at Boston, in Lincolnshire, in order to petition parliament for peace and reform, at which Mr. C. presided.

A subsequent meeting was held in the same town, by a party well affected to the minister and his plans, who sent to parliament a counter petition, in which they represented, that such a reform as that suggested in the first petition would tend directly to the subversion of our present constitution.

This assertion appeared so strange and unfounded to Mr. C., that he drew up this appeal in refutation of it, and in defence of the petitioning patriots.

He

He takes a wide range in defence of his own conduct, and that of his fellow citizens; and, after lamenting that we have not a constitution drawn up, and in every body's hands, as the people of America have, he endeavours, from Blackstone and some of our first legal authorities, to prove, that the english constitution was originally free, and that a fair and adequate representation of the people is it's most essential part, it's very essence. The tory petitioners had stated, that the language of the patriot petition was not the language, and expressed not the opinions of the majority of the people in and near Boston. Mr. C. considers, that by this assertion they have fairly thrown down the gauntlet, and with all the ardour of a true soldier he eagerly takes it up, and is willing to put it to the proof.

He is willing to circulate the following declaration, not only through Lincolnshire, but through all England, and to have it every where returned with the certificate which follows it, and his opponents are at liberty to circulate a counter declaration; these declarations are to be signed only by *taxed householders*, the certificate is to be signed by the returning officer, or the person appointed thus to collect the sense of the people.

Declaration. 'We who have hereunto subscribed our names, do declare it to be our opinion, that the representation of the people of Great Britain in the commons house of parliament, is defective, and that it ought to be reformed, according to the principles of our excellent constitution.'

Certificate. 'I do hereby certify that in the parish of——, in the county of—— there are—— householders, inhabitants, who are assessed to the payment of parochial taxes, and that—— of them have signed the following declaration.' The declaration above written.

This is a fair appeal, but we apprehend Mr. C.'s opponents will not join issue with him in it.

Man, ignorant and prejudiced man, is only instructed by suffering. It is the discipline of nature, her first law respecting him. This instruction is preparing for the people of England, and although Mr. C. is not young, he may yet live to see it's effects.

The british public must know, that their burdens originate in that house, without which they cannot be taxed at all. While these burdens were tolerable, they staid not to inquire into the necessity of their imposition, or into the application of the fruits of their labour.

But now every man is smarting, or will soon smart under his load. Every new tax is felt as a wound. The head of every family shudders at the report of a fresh imposition. The mind cannot long slumber in inactivity; it must soon inquire whether all this be *necessary*. The opening of every new budget will be felt as an earthquake; the concussion will awake the sleeping, and alarm the active.

The conduct of ministers and of parliaments will be examined; the expenditure, we fear, will be found profuse and unnecessary; and the evil will be traced to it's origin. The people, sore with their sufferings, indignant at the cause of them, and conscious of power

power for their correction, will repair the fault of their past supineness, by prompt and efficient activity.

The day of redemption approaches, and, we believe, with no tardy step. In the mean time, Mr. C.'s efforts are not lost. He is informing the mind of that public, without which nothing can be accomplished, and which must be enlightened, before it can be used to advantage. The times are awful, but propitious. We must be made perfect through suffering; but he is the best friend of his species, whose efforts are exerted to weaken the point, or lessen the amount of that suffering. We wish every neighbourhood had a Cartwright, and then we should not fear a storm. We should then hope to see the representation of the people corrected, by peaceful and constitutional measures. This is our first wish for our country: may the abuses of her constitution be corrected, and her peace be perpetual. The present pamphlet is printed in a very cheap form, and, though sold for sixpence, contains more matter than many a volume, but what is more to the purpose is, that it is well stored with thought, and abounds with animated and impressive passages. It is a valuable addition to the works of a man, whose name can never be forgotten, whilst the union of public and private virtue shall be considered as a title to distinction and honour.

ART. XXIV. *Observations on the Establishment of the Bank of England, and on the Paper Circulation of the Country, &c.* By Sir F. Baring, Bart. 8vo. 81 pages. Price 1s. 6d. Sewell. 1797.

WE always experience a very sensible pleasure, when we hear that plain, practical men, are employing the press for the instruction of their fellow citizens. Sir Francis B., from his extensive mercantile concerns, and the very active part he takes in their management, appears peculiarly qualified to write on the subject of the circulation of the country, and we doubt not, the public will look with much expectation into this pamphlet. They will not be wholly disappointed; for it contains many solid and ingenious observations, on the cause of the scarcity of species at the beginning of this year, and the end of the last year; on the erroneous principles on which the minister has acted, in his attempts to distress the french; on the impolicy of employing those he did to advance loans, in opposition to the usual practice of applying to real monied men; and on the circulating medium of the country in general, as well as on the situation of the bank in particular.

This production is, however, very deficient in arrangement, it is loose and not a little confused; we refuse therefore to the whole the praise, to which we think various single remarks and observations entitled. We regard it chiefly as a mean of calling the public attention to a subject of tremendous import to their peace, and to which we fear they are but too indifferent, because too little informed. Sir Francis's book will be read, and conversation will be excited by it, which will produce an increase of knowledge of the subjects he discusses. The press is not the only mean of information. If we may borrow a simile from what is

treated of in the pamphlet, the press is to the circulation of knowledge, what the bank of England is to the circulation of paper in this country.

The country banks spread over the whole surface, but the bank of England is their centre and support; so conversation carries knowledge to the remotest corners, but the press is the centre of it's circulation.

Sir F. wishes parliament to prohibit country banks from issuing notes *payable on demand*; as in case of a run, they are thus stopped in an instant: having invested their capital in London, they should have time to communicate with the metropolis, and sell their stock. He would, in order to allow this needful time, have all country bills issued *payable twenty days after date*; in this, and for the reason he assigns, we agree with our author.

He wishes, that bank notes should be made in all cases a *legal tender*. We lament they are in *any case* already a legal tender, but we deprecate the extension of the principle, as we do the last evil that can afflict our country. It can do no good thus to make them a tender, for sir Francis admits all things go on very well without it; and it is an experiment big with danger, to the circulation of the notes it is intended to protect. While the mind rests not in the paper as an *ultimatum*, confidence may exist, but when it shall be led to consider notes in this light, their *depreciation* is ensured.

We have never ceased to proclaim our fears on this subject, since the stoppage of the bank; and we refer our readers to all the articles, since that period, on this subject, which have come under our review, to which we cannot now add any additional remarks.

We think sir Francis has not duly weighed the arguments which have been advanced by political economists, on the importance of a circulating medium, possessing an *intrinsic value*, and the impossibility of limiting any other medium of circulation within it's just bounds. We refer the reader, on this subject, to our remarks upon Mr. Playfair's letter to sir William Pultney, in the Review for august last.

Sir Francis has made some very pertinent observations on the probability, in case of a convulsion in the country, of the *depreciation of all property*, as well as of bank notes, which, however, he thinks, and very justly, will still be of *some value*. His observations are true as far as they extend; they are true of stock in general, and his idea of danger to the holders of articles of the first necessity, such as corn, &c. is also true. But property in land appears to us not to be subject to his remarks, or to the dreaded depreciation. The soil cannot be burnt or stolen by a mob; and whatever be the relative value of produce to coin, it's *real value*, as the means of sustaining life, must be at all times, and in all circumstances, *the same*.

Agreeably to our expectations on this subject, we are informed many cautious monied men are now acting, and paying near forty years purchase for dirty acres. If there be a security, in times even of confusion, certainly this is that security; for no
revolution.

revolution has yet, without alleged acts of treason, transferred the possession of lands, in the country where it has happened.

ART. XXV. *A New System of Finance, &c.* By Thomas Fry. 8vo. 124 pages. Price 2s. 6d. Jordan. 1797.

THIS curious work embraces a great variety of interesting matter. It is written with an easy humour, sometimes approaching to levity, by which we apprehend the author meant to relieve the reader from the dry tediousness of calculation and figures; we see in it, however, much information, collected with commendable industry, and detailed with an accuracy worthy of praise; and although we suspect the correctness of some statements, they ought to take little from the general impression of the awful truths contained in the book.

Mr. F. finds prodigality and fraud in all the offices and agents of government, expense incurred without profit, and debt funded with wanton inattention and cruel oppression of the country.

He cannot be a friend to his country, who can read, without indignant emotion, the following passage.

P. 94.—‘ Our burthens have increased during the reign of the best of kings. In the year 1760 the whole of our funded debt amounted to no more than 75,237,926l. 14s. 2½d. bearing an annual interest of 2,419,313l. 17s. 10½d.

‘ Present amount of the funded debt, when the outstanding debts are funded and converted into the 3 per cents. — — —

500,000,000 0 0
75,237,926 14 2

‘ Additional principal debt, in the proportion of 3 per cent. — — —

424,762,073 5 10

‘ Annual interest of debt, 1794 —

15,000,000

‘ Charges of management by the bank of England — — —

300,000

15,300,000

‘ Annual interest of debt, 1760 —

2,419,313 17 10

‘ Additional annual interest and management

12,800,686 2 2

‘ As this change hath taken place in the reign of the best of kings, we certainly must have had corrupt parliaments. As they have acknowledged it themselves, it can be no treason to tell them so. Upon the whole, it is astonishing that in the little distance from St. Stephen's chapel to the house of commons, honourable gentlemen should in so short a time empty their mouths of their prayers, and immediately fill their hearts with corruption: the ground ought to be consecrated every foot of the way from the chapel to the honourable house, which may in future have the wonderful effect of keeping them virtuous. I shall say nothing more of the present members than pray that God may make them more virtuous, and Simon Pope a better man than his father.’

The author wished to communicate with Mr. Fox and Mr. Sheridan, thinking he could inform them on some subjects connected with the finances; he made application for admission to them, but—no! he was informed, by their partizans, that *they* were the first *calculators* in the kingdom. This the author, we think, justly and happily ridicules, for it is not to be named among the attainments of these gentlemen, that they are eminent financiers. Each side of the house may be accused of inattention to subjects of this nature. What say our contemporaries to the following table?

P. 104.—*Price of bread and other necessities of life, from 1742 to 1748, with some little variation.*

Present Price.		Present Price.	
s.	d.	s.	d.
Bread, 3d. the quarter loaf	0 8½	Oats	8d 3 0
Cheese, 2d. per lb.	0 8	Oatmeal in proportion	
Butter, 3d½	1 2	Malt, the winchester bushel,	
Beef 2d	0 8	1s 6d	7 6
Mutton 1d½	0 7	Rice, 1d½ per lb.	0 3
Lamb, 1s 5d the quarter	7 6	Wine, at taverns, 1s 4d the	
Veal, 1d½ per lb.	0 8	bottle	3 6
Pork, 2d	0 9	French wines, that may be	
Bacon, 3d½	0 10	sold in England at 4d	
Turkey, 1s. 6d*	7 6	the bottle, and every	
Fat goose, 1s. 2d*	6 0	cordial at the lowest me-	
Two ducks, 1s*	6 0	chanic's price.	
Two fowls, 8d*	6 0	Prohibited brandy, the	
Two ditto, half grown, 6d*	4 0	glass, 1d	0 4
Sope, 3d½	0 9	rum, 1d	0 4
Candles, 4d	0 10	gin ½d	0 2
Barley, the winchester		Good amber ale, 2d½ the	
bushel, 1s	4 6	pot	0 6

We contemplate with wonder and grief the progress of the funding system, the state of our debt, and the ignorance of the people on subjects of national finance, and we recommend it to Mr. Fry, and all the labourers in this neglected vineyard, to endeavour a correct simplicity of statement, and to publish their observations on the different departments of this complicated system of finance, in very small pamphlets. What is the business of *all* receives the *attention of few*; the mind is easily fatigued by calculation, and disgusted with figures: let him, therefore, who would serve his country by labours of this kind, put into the hands of *all* what *all* can comprehend, what may be understood without effort, and recollected without labour.

ART. XXVI. *The Voice of Truth to the People of England of all Ranks and Descriptions, on Occasion of Lord Malmesbury's Return from Lisle.* 8vo. 74 pages. Price 1s. 6d. Rivingtons. 1797.

In the course of our reading, we do not recollect ever having had occasion to notice a pamphlet so declamatory, so abusive, so vulgar, and of so offending a tendency as the present. Yet, we believe, it

* * These were the prices at country markets; of course some little expence must be added for bringing to town.

will

will be harmless. It has neither wit, beauty, nor force to raise it into consideration. To infuse distrust and suspicion into the intercourse of life, to break the peace of neighbourhood and the ties of consanguinity and friendship, to make one man a spy upon another, and finally to bury all the social affections, in the rage of political faction, appears to be the aim of this anonymous writer; but his reasoning is not even worthy of the nursery, and his eloquence is only adapted to a Billingsgate audience. Eternal war, this impotent writer would recommend, with the republic of France; but the trumpet must be blown more powerfully, to excite in britons a disposition favourable to his designs. He says his pamphlet would have been laid at the feet of Mr. Burke, had that gentleman been alive; but we believe the analyst of the sublime and beautiful would have had no appetite for such offal. He has, since Mr. Burke is no more, offered it to Mr. Wyndham, with a view, no doubt, that it should be applied by the secretary to the purpose for which it is most adapted—*wrapping up 'candle ends and cheese parings.'* S. A.

ART. XXVII. *Des Moyens de régénérer la France, &c.—Of the Means of regenerating France, and of accelerating a durable Peace with her Enemies.* By C. Delacroix, Ancient Professor of Law, at the Lyceum, &c. 8vo. Price 4s. Published at Paris, 1797, and imported by De Boffe, Gerrard-street.

THE first part of this volume is employed in the very laudable attempt of meliorating the progress of legislation, and the defects incident to the trial and punishment of criminals. While treating of prisons, the author observes, that the law does not use them as the means of punishment, but of security; and he accordingly recommends it to those who preside over this department, to render them as comfortable and salubrious as possible. In respect to duels, he wishes to supersede the necessity of them altogether, by the erection of *courts of honour*, which he deems fully competent for this purpose.

Mr. Delacroix is for exercising all the severity of the laws in respect to such delinquents as are guilty of great offences against the community; and he seems to blame Beccaria, for wishing an intire abolition of capital punishments: but, on the other hand, he considers many atrocities as arising rather from the bad organization of society, than the depraved hearts of individuals. Every man, he very justly observes, ought to be enabled to gain a subsistence by his labour, 'for, on the one hand, to condemn the thief to death, and, on the other, to allow the necessity of stealing to exist, is only to grant to poverty the choice of either perishing by famine, or an infamous punishment.' The author thinks, that it is the interest of all the belligerent powers, to make an immediate peace, and more especially that of England, the inhabitants of which subsist by supplying the wants of their neighbours:

'Instead of wishing to extend her dominions in the East and West Indies, and impoverish the other powers of Europe, let her recollect, that the more a nation is commercial, the more ought she to desire that her neighbours should be opulent: industry does not gain any thing by being connected with indigence.'

ART. XXVIII. *The Distilleries considered in their Connection with the Agriculture, Commerce, and Revenue of Britain; also in their Effects upon the Health, Tranquillity, and Morals of the People.* 8vo. 88 pages. Price 2s. Murray and Co. 1797.

THE writer of this pamphlet sets out with a conclusion, that may probably be disputed by some of our readers, viz. that the distillation of spirits from grain is advantageous to the agriculture, the commerce, and the revenue of the country. However this may be, the pernicious effects which have resulted from the products of this process, on the health and morals of the people, have, in our opinion, far more than counterbalanced any national benefits that could possibly arise from it. For we are not by any means disposed to think with the author, that, even in Britain, the state of society renders *spirits* one of the necessities of life. That the habit of drinking liquors has been much too common in this island, we must indeed allow; but we know from numerous and recent examples, that even the habits and customs of a people can be more easily changed, than has been generally supposed; and therefore, that, by lessening the *encouragement*, or the means of obtaining such destructive substances, this evil may also at last be removed.

In discussing the various advantages, that must necessarily arise from proper encouragement being given to distilleries, the author labours with much industry and perseverance to convince his readers, that distilled spirits are far more useful in supporting the system, and much less noxious to the constitution, than liquors of the fermented kind. If the very intelligent writer had, however, condescended to stop and examine facts; he would most probably have found reason to change this opinion, which, like many others in the pamphlet, seems to have been hastily taken up. A. R.

ART. XXIX. *Instructions for the Treatment of Negroes, &c.* 12mo. 134 pages. Price 2s. Shepperson and Reynolds. 1797.

THE author of these pages, it seems, has himself been the master of a number of negroes, for the management of his own plantations. If the poor wretches were treated in conformity to the instructions here delivered, we doubt not but they were more comfortable than the generality of their fellow-sufferers. As for our part, we have been uniformly and decidedly for the total and unqualified abolition of the slave trade; in our opinion, the palliative of kind treatment is comparatively trifling. It is idle to soften the expression—the master of a slave is a despot; the terms are strictly correlative; some despots may have more humanity than others, but they are despots still. We gladly take this and every opportunity, to express our complete abhorrence and detestation of slavery, however it be disguised, or however alleviated.

NATURAL HISTORY.

ART. XXX. *A Cabinet of Quadrupeds, consisting of highly finished Engravings, by James Tookey and Paton Thompson, from elegant Drawings, by Julius Ibbetson, R. A. Many of them sketched from the Animals in their Native Climes; with historical and scientific Descriptions, by John Church, Surgeon. Large 4to. Six Numbers. Part II. Price 1l. 4s. Darton and Hervey.*

RESPECTING this second part of the cabinet of quadrupeds, we have nothing to remark in addition, and certainly nothing in subtraction from the terms of high recommendation, in which we noticed the former (see vol. xxiv, p. 471.) The engravings of the present part represent the arabian horse, the flying and virginian opossums, the goat, the giraffe, the terrier and the greyhound, the civet cat and genet, the fox, the zebra, the mastiff and lion dog, the boar and chinese hog, the lion and the rein deer. The figures are executed with remarkable elegance and aptitude of posture; the scenery of the back ground is picturesque and appropriate; and the description of the different animals is enlivened with various anecdotes, illustrative of their respective propensities and habits.

SCHOOL BOOKS.

ART. XXXI. *Dialogues in a Library. Small 8vo. 278 pages. Price 4s. sewed. Robinsons. 1797.*

A TITLE-page ought to give the public some general information concerning the contents of a book. From the title of this book nothing can be learned, but that it contains dialogues; for, since a library may consist of books upon any subjects, it is very plain, that dialogues in a library may be dialogues upon any thing. It is our duty, in this case, to supply the omission of the author, by informing our readers, that these dialogues are grave conversations upon weighty subjects; and, still more particularly, that they are intended to exhibit views of nature, and of the moral world, which may serve to confirm the persuasion, that so obviously presents itself to the human mind, of the universal adaptation of means to ends, and the consequent existence of an intelligent, designing cause. Many excellent publications have been written with this laudable design. Boyle, Ray, Derham, Nicuentyt, St. Pierre, Sturm, and many other ingenious writers, who have not been ashamed of the character of a religious philosopher, have laboured with great success in this rich and inexhaustible mine, and have, doubtless, contributed essentially to establish in the minds of men a rational conviction of the first principle of religion. A publication, which professes so useful a purpose, may be entitled to a candid reception, though it should offer to the public nothing altogether new, or display no uncommon elegance of style. These dialogues are inferior to several former works of this kind in variety of matter; and of the

facts and phenomena, which are here exhibited, almost all are familiarly known to those who have paid attention to the subjects of natural history, and natural philosophy: nevertheless there is a numerous class, to whom a work of this kind may afford information; who may be at once instructed and amused by descriptions of the structure and powers of man and other animals; of curious facts in vegetable life; of the phenomena of the atmosphere, light, and vision; and of circumstances which appear to indicate design in the moral state of the world. Other subjects, particularly, the mosaic account of the early state of mankind, and the evidences of the christian religion, are so very slightly touched, as to promise an inquisitive reader little satisfaction. Sometimes the writer indulges himself too freely in the language of invective against infidels. No man was ever convinced of an error by being abused; and no opinion can be more destructive of all freedom, and of all improvement, than a doctrine advanced in this work, that those who hold opinions which we think absurd, or impious, are on that account as proper objects of public cognizance, as rioters or felons. Nevertheless, we allow the author the merit of general good intention; and though we do not deem any of his dialogues sufficiently original to require an extract, we think his work may be read with advantage by young people, and such as have not leisure to peruse larger treatises.

ART. XXXII. *A Dialogue between a Lady and her Pupils, describing a Journey through England and Wales; in which a Detail of the different Arts and Manufactures of each City and Town is accurately given; interspersed with Observations and Descriptions in Natural History. Designed for Young Ladies in Schools.* By Mrs. Brook. Small 8vo. 280 pages. Price 3s. 6d. bound. Rickman.

THE most superficial observer must have remarked, that the books, which have been written for the amusement of children within these few years, have contained much more useful matter, than was formerly thought necessary for such a purpose. The pages before us are perhaps unnecessarily minute in naming obscure villages; and, more than once, they offer the most random and extravagant calculations respecting the number of people inhabiting any town or district. The author should have remembered, that it is better to be silent, than to give erroneous information. Children, however, may learn from this volume, what are the natural productions of different counties, and what the manufactories for which they are celebrated.

ART. XXXIII. *The Geography of History: or, the Relative Situation of the States and Sovereigns of Europe from the Christian Era to the Eleventh Century: presenting an easy and certain Method of reading and studying History to Advantage.* By Mr. Le Sage. Single Sheet. Price 2s. 6d. plain. 3s. coloured. Dulau and Co. 1797.

THE period of modern history from the conquest to the present time has been already exhibited in one view, in a single sheet, divided

vided into columns, of which an account will be found in our Rev. vol. xxiv, p. 363. The present table completes the author's plan, as far as concerns modern history. It may very properly accompany Dr. Priestley's Chart of History, which the author has pretty closely followed. General views of this kind are extremely useful, in enabling young people to take a connected and comprehensive survey of the great events of the world. In tables, where the principal object was, to bring under the eye, in methodical arrangement, as much historical matter as could be comprized in a single sheet, it was injudicious to devote an entire column to the names of the popes, the series of which is of little importance to remember.

ART. XXXIV. *Elements of French Grammar, as taught at Vernon Hall.* 12mo. 146 pages. Price 2s. Liverpool, Crane and Jones; London, Vernor and Hood. 1797.

THIS French Grammar possesses at least two excellencies: it is concise, and it is correctly and neatly printed. We will add, that the materials appear to be judiciously chosen and arranged: that the english is very accurate, and that the book bids fair to be more useful than many a larger grammar.

ART. XXXV. *Traité Complet de Pronunciation Angloise, &c. A complete Treatise on English Pronunciation; in which almost all the Exceptions are reduced to general Rules; with a Treatise on French Accent.* By Mr. E. Thomas. 8vo. 78 pages. Price 2s. Dulau and Co. 1796.

FOR a frenchman to write a treatise on the pronunciation of the english language, may seem a bold undertaking; yet, englishmen have written french grammars, containing rules for pronunciation; and Mr. T. has succeeded better than an englishman would expect. He has, indeed, had the modesty to take an englishman, Mr. Walker, who has written with great accuracy on the subject, for his guide. An english ear may easily detect too many errors in this work, to leave it possessed of the credit of being a complete treatise; it may, nevertheless, be very useful to frenchmen in learning to speak the english language.

MISCELLANEOUS.

ART. XXXVI. *The Village Curate and his Daughter Julia, describing her Journey to London. A Tale.* 12mo. 131 pages. Price 3s. 6d. in boards. Riley.

THIS is a simple narration of some of the most prominent dangers, to which a young artless unprotected woman is exposed, in the metropolis: it has not much variety of incident, or character, to recommend it, but may be perused with more moral advantage, than many works which are intitled to much higher merit as compositions.

Six prints, in 4to., designed by Cruikshank, representing the principal events of the story, are sold separately, price 12s. D. M.

ART. XXXVII. *The Defence of the Prisoners in York Castle, for not paying Tithes, against the Charge of George Markham, Vicar of Carlton, in Yorkshire, contained in his Book entitled Truth for the Seekers.* 8vo. 32 pages. Price 4d. Phillips. 1797.

WHEN we noticed Dr. Markham's defence of his conduct in prosecuting the quakers*, who have now published this pamphlet, we intimated our suspicions, that the doctor had not fairly endeavoured the settlement of this matter in the first instance, before the magistrates. The truth of that suspicion is fully proved, by the statement here offered to the public. Dr. Markham, as we expected, stands exposed, as the *willing oppressor* of his peaceful parishoners, whose religion forbids the payment of tithes. This defence is written with great ability, and a moderation still more entitled to praise, as it is in reply to a very violent and abusive pamphlet. The purest water generally receives a colour and alloy from the soil through which it passes; but the spirit of these respectable quakers is as uncontaminated, as the stream that flows through polished marble. We are glad to see this pamphlet has already reached a third edition, the public mind will receive from it a powerful and worthy impulse. The world is more indebted to this religious sect, than, perhaps, to any other. They have born a testimony against persecution, which has not been lost. The marked disapprobation of the proceedings of Dr. Markham against these worthy individuals, shown both by our civil and ecclesiastical governors, seems to promise the dawn of better days, when the laws, corrected and improved, will no longer leave it to the power of imperious priests to trample on the rights of humanity, and riot on the spoils of the good. The press has a thousand tongues, and nothing can now be done in a corner; the martyrs of truth and virtue should therefore take courage, and persevere, for the season is auspicious.

We trust this defence will make the names of the venerable confessors, John Wormal, Henry Wormal, Joseph Brown, James Walton, and John Stansfield, dear to the ears of britons, and that they will yet live to see, undisturbed by further prosecution, that their example is efficacious, and that their labour has not been in vain.

ART. XXXVIII. *A Letter to the Hon. Thomas Erskine, with a Postscript to the Right Hon. Lord Kenyon, upon their Conduct at the Trial of Thomas Williams, for publishing Paine's Age of Reason.* By John Martin, Solicitor for the Defendant. 12mo. 36 pages. Smith. 1797.

MR. M. here defends his conduct against the vehement abuse of Mr. Erskine, on the trial of Williams. We think Mr. M. has fairly exculpated himself; and we believe the unprejudiced will think these statements less honourable to Mr. Erskine than to this solicitor.

ART. XXXIX. *Mr. Palmer's Case explained.* By G. Bonnor. 8vo. 38 pages. Price 1s. Richardson. 1797.

* See our Rev. p. 306 of this volume.

It belongs not to us to pronounce upon the merits of such a case as is here examined, without documents much more clear and express than those contained in this pamphlet.

Mr. Palmer says he has been injured; and the agreement he made with government, on the part of government broken. Mr. B. says, the agreement was not positive, and Mr. Palmer forfeited the claims he had upon government, by a systematic plan formed by him, and in part executed, 'for throwing [page 18] the correspondence of the country into confusion, to create delay in the conveyance of letters, and to cause the worst possible conduct of an important public concern, intrusted to his management, and for which, in addition to a great many thousand pounds he had previously received, he was then in the receipt of nearly five thousand pounds a year.'

Upon the fairness of their respective statements, we cannot decide; but we have been told, and we credit the report, that in the conduct of the concerns of the post-office, there is such profusion of expence, as to demand the public attention.

ART. XL. *A Dressing for Lord Thurlow prepared By a Surgeon.* 8vo. 26 pages. Price 1s. Cox. 1797.

WHEN lord Thurlow attacked the surgeons, who lately solicited parliament to create them monopolists for ever, he must have been aware that he was meddling with *edge tools*. Without his requiring any of their assistance, one of the body has sent him a dressing gratis. As we have not heard, that his lordship has received any wound; and as we think the darts which the hand has thrown, who thus kindly prepares a dressing, have fallen pointless at his feet; we fear the fons of the knife will not have the pleasure of seeing their enemy's face distorted. No pain, not even the slightest smarting is felt by the advocate of justice; and we fear, from his agitation, that the surgeon, in preparing the dressing, has pricked his own finger. Let the body attend to prevent a *locked jaw*.

ART. XLI. *A Letter to the Hon. Thomas Erskine, on the Prosecution of Thomas Williams, for publishing the Age of Reason.* By Thomas Paine. 8vo. 31 pa. Paris, printed for the Author. 1797.

THIS letter is written with the spirit and energy which are displayed in all the writings of this singular man. He begins by declaring, that he shall be silent on the subject of christianity, for the precepts of which he shows much respect in all his performances; but he cannot forbear, even here, saying a word on the *jeewish religion*. He quotes the first two chapters of Genesis, says the first chapter ought to end with the third verse of the second chapter of the present division, and then he compares the accounts of the *same transactions*, given in each chapter, and with much exultation declares them *contradictory* to each other.

He then proceeds to the account of the flood; and affirms, that it has been written *after* the giving of the mosaic law, which is said to have been given six hundred years after that event. The proof offered of this assertion is, that, in the directions to Noah, mention is made of *clean and unclean beasts*, which he calls a distinction of the *law of Moses*, and not of nature.

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He then remarks, that the first time the law, called the law of Moses, made it's appearance, was in the time of Josiah, about a thousand years after the death of Moses, and that it appears to have been found by accident in the house of the Lord.

2 Chron. chap. xxxiv, ver. 14, 15, 16, 18. 'Hilkiah the priest found the book of the law of the Lord, given by Moses, and said to Shaphan the scribe, I have found the book of the law in the house of the Lord, and the scribe carried the book to Josiah the king saying, Hilkiah the priest hath given me a book.'

This, with the usual wantonness of our comic author, is compared to the discovery of Rowley's poems by Chatterton, and the Shakspeare's mss. by Ireland.

Mr. Levi, the jew, had produced a reference of the miracle of the sun standing still to an account in the book of *Jasher*, as a proof that the books of the law of Moses were then known to exist, because *Jasher* was the book of that law. Mr. Paine, in reply to this, refers Mr. Levi to 2 Samuel, ver. 15, 17, 18, where some account of the actions of king David are said to be written in the book of *Jasher*. He asks Levi, if Moses gave any account of David, who lived more than five hundred years after him. After having repeated some old objections to the jewish religion, on account of it's cruelty, he proceeds to reason with Mr. Erskine on the subject of this prosecution, and we confess, *this part* of the pamphlet appears to us forceful and conclusive.

P. 16.—'Not one of those who have attempted to write answers to the *Age of Reason* have taken the ground upon which only an answer could be written. The case in question is not upon any point of doctrine, but altogether upon a matter of fact. Is the book called the Bible the word of God or is it not? If it can be proved to be so, it ought to be believed as such; if not, it ought not to be believed as such. This is the true state of the case. The *Age of Reason* produces evidence to shew, and I have in this letter produced additional evidence, that it is *not* the word of God. Those who take the contrary side, should prove that it is. But this they have not done nor attempted to do, and consequently they have done nothing to the purpose.

'The prosecutors of Williams have shrunk from the point as the answerers have done. They have availed themselves of prejudice instead of proof. If a writing was produced in a court of judicature, said to be the writing of a certain person, and upon the reality or non-reality of which, some matter at issue depended, the point to be proved would be, that such writing was the writing of such person. Or if the issue depended upon certain words, which some certain person was said to have spoken, the point to be proved would be, that such words were spoken by such person; and Mr. Erskine would contend the case upon this ground. A certain book is said to be the word of God, what is the proof that it is so? for upon this the whole depends; and if it cannot be proved to be so, the prosecution fails for want of evidence.

'The prosecution against Williams charges him with publishing a book, entitled the *Age of Reason*, which, it says, is an impious blasphemous pamphlet, tending to ridicule and bring into contempt the holy scriptures. Nothing is more easy than to find abusive words, and english prosecutions are famous for this species of vulgarity.

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The charge however is sophistical; for the charge as growing out of the pamphlet should have stated, not as it now states, to ridicule and bring into contempt the holy scriptures, but to shew, that the books called the holy scriptures are not the holy scriptures. It is one thing if I ridicule a work as being written by a certain person; but it is quite a different thing, if I write to prove that such work was not written by such person. In the first case, I attack the person through the work; in the other case, I defend the honour of the person against the work. This is what the *Age of Reason* does, and consequently the charge in the indictment is sophistically stated. Every one will admit, that if the Bible be *not* the word of God, we err in believing it to be his word, and ought not to believe it. Certainly, then, the ground the prosecution should take, would be to prove that the Bible is in fact what it is called. But this the prosecution has not done and cannot do.

‘In all cases the prior fact must be proved, before the subsequent facts can be admitted in evidence. In a prosecution for adultery, the fact of marriage, which is the prior fact, must be proved before the facts to prove adultery can be received. If the fact of marriage cannot be proved, adultery cannot be proved; and if the prosecution cannot prove the Bible to be the word of God, the charge of blasphemy is visionary and groundless.’

We here join issue with Mr. Paine, and freely confess, that all other modes of refutation are, in our judgment, odious and contemptible, calculated to carry men over to deism, and to spread the infidelity; they would punish.

Mr. Erskine, we presume, by this time sees the folly of the proceeding in which he has been engaged: he has assisted the cause of unbelievers; and he has provoked Mr. Paine to repeat what he had heard him assert concerning the british constitution, in private conversation, and to accuse all lawyers of dishonesty and craft. It appears from the preface to this pamphlet, that Mr. Erskine is no great admirer of the british constitution; and that he does not think it a good model for a country which is forming one *de novo*.

This pamphlet also contains an account of the society formed in Paris, called theophilanthropists, who worship the God of the universe, without priests or ceremonies. To this society Mr. Paine delivered a discourse, which is here given at full length. It consists of plain and conclusive reasoning in favour of the existence of God.

Mr. Paine here appears in the character of a zealous and pious theist, and he recommends the study of natural philosophy to the society, as the only true theology. Every pious christian may read this discourse with delight and profit. Mr. Paine has no leaning to that atheism, of which the french nation has been accused.

This pamphlet is said to be printed at Paris. We think we perceive internal evidence, that this is not true; for the little french it contains is miserably incorrect. It was, we suspect, printed in England, but we know not by whom; we met it in our way, and have accordingly presented to our readers this account of it's contents. It is in circulation, and will be read by thousands, without the common advantage of public exhibition. A proof this of the vanity of every attempt, now that printing is in general use, to prevent the circulation of opinion, and scientific discussion.

S. A.

LITERARY

LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

THEOLOGY.

ART. I. *Aarau. Auswahl einiger Predigten, &c.* Select Sermons by J. G. Fisch, second Preacher at Aarau. 8vo. 187 p. 1797.

Mr. F. informs us, that he should not have thought of committing any of his sermons to the press, had he not found it necessary thus to appeal to the public, in refutation of the reproaches made him, that he did not preach the truths of christianity. For our parts, we think the ten sermons here given highly honourable to the sentiments and abilities of Mr. F., and well calculated to benefit their auditors: they are such as cannot fail to please every rational christian, though they may not satisfy those, who would hear of nothing from the pulpit but salvation by faith, and the common language of religious creeds. As a specimen of Mr. F.'s manner we may give the following extract. 'Too many think they do honour to christianity, when they represent it as a difficult, steep, and arduous path to Heaven, surrounded with a thousand perils. It is their usual language, that the christian has great and dangerous trials to undergo; that the whole world is in arms against his virtue. He has to wander among precipices, from which the least slip tumbles him headlong down: and every step that he advances forward, he meets some new and fearful enemy to encounter. Lastly he finds the most dangerous enemy of all in his own heart, which seeks to seduce him every moment. I know not whether christianity be really honoured by such a representation; but this I know, that true faith removes all difficulties. To me virtue appears no hazardous conflict, where life or death is the stake; but, if we earnestly pursue it, a pleasing exercise. At the beginning, it must be confessed, it has it's difficulties; but these decrease with it's advancement. It demands watchfulness, constant watchfulness, over ourselves: but this soon becomes habitual, it becomes a second nature. Tell me, ye noble few, who resolutely walk in the footsteps of Christ, is the law of the purest morality, which you have imposed on yourselves, a heavy and oppressive load? have you not always found the truth of your lord and teacher's assurance: "my yoke is easy, and my burden light?"

Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.

CHEMISTRY.

ART. II. After a long interval, we have received another number of the *Journal de Physique*, which, notwithstanding the delay it has experienced, the proprietor professes himself resolved, if he possibly can, to continue, for the promotion of science. The first article is on the *Inflammation of Indigo by the nitrous Acid*, by B. G. Sage, who observes:

'Indigo is composed of gluten, and iron combined with an acid similar to that which constitutes prussian blue. Indigo, as well as prussian

prussian blue, resists the action of the vitrolic and muriatic acids, but the fuming nitrous acid decomposes and inflames it.

‘ I put into a glass with a foot two drams of Guatimala indigo, coarsely powdered; on which I poured an ounce of nitrous acid at 50°. This glass I placed in a glass jar half filled with water, on a glass stand, and covered it with a glass bell. In five or six minutes the nitrous acid penetrated the indigo, which swelled up; the glass was filled with fumes; the mixture grew warm; yellowish white vapours, produced by the oil of indigo, were disengaged; in a short time a jet of sparks issued from the bottom of the glass, the whole inflamed, and thus ended one of the most beautiful experiments I ever saw.’

This article is followed by a *Continuation of a Memoir explaining the methodical Distribution of all Volcanic Productions*, by Cit. Deod. Dolomieu; and *meteorological Observations*, by L. Cotte; both of which we shall pass over. Next comes a *Continuation of a Memoir on the Blood*, by citizens Parmentier and Deyeux; the general results of whose experiments are thus summed up.

‘ It appears, from our experiments, that the blood in general is composed of nine principal parts: the odorous part, the fibrous substance, albumen, sulphur, gelatin, the red part, iron, alkali or soda, and water. The neutral salts found in the blood may be esteemed foreign to it; as it is certain, that it can exist without them, and that their presence is owing to particular circumstances. The proportions of the different parts vary infinitely, according to the age, constitution, and mode of living of the party.

‘ 1. *The odorous part.* This, in a healthy subject, is very perceptible, especially when the blood is fresh. It gradually grows weaker, as the blood changes; and disappears entirely, as soon as putrefaction has taken place. In the blood of a sick person the odorous part is decidedly less observable; and it is probable, that, in certain cases, it can hardly exist. Its affinity to the serum appears to be less than to the coagulum; for the latter retains it wholly for some time, while the serum, when completely separated, is destitute of it. We have observed a pretty clear analogy between the odorous part of the blood, and that of vegetables; for both, to say nothing of their action on the organ of smell, are soluble in air, in water, and in spirituous liquors.

‘ 2. *Fibrous substance.* This appears to us to exist in the blood in a state of extreme division, if not of solution. Any quick motion given to the blood as it issues from the vessels is sufficient to occasion its separation; or it may be obtained by diluting the blood with a certain quantity of water: in the former case, the fibrous substance appears in the shape of filaments adhering together, producing a body possessed of elasticity; in the latter, it is precipitated in the form of membranaceous pellicles: in both, however, the same results constantly arise from the operation of chemical agents, being those that belong to most animal substances. In young animals, the fibrous substance appears to have less tenacity; in the adult, the tenacity is more sensible: but the only difference found in it, in sickness or in health, depends on the age; so that the fibrous substance of the blood of scorbutics, and of those who are afflicted either with
putrid

putrid or inflammatory diseases, resembles very nearly that which is separated from the blood of a person in health. Moreover, it is the fibrous substance that contributes to the formation of the coagulum, which was long ascribed to the loss of the natural heat of the blood, but which is in reality nothing but the result of the contraction this substance undergoes in consequence of losing the vital principle.

3. *Red part.* The shades of this vary infinitely from a number of incalculable circumstances. In general it may be observed, that the blood of young persons is vermillion coloured; that of the more aged, deeper. It is well known, likewise, that the venous blood is less bright than the arterial, and that there are numberless shades in the colour of both. After all the trials we could make, it was not practicable for us to extract the colouring part, so as to obtain it perfectly free from any foreign admixture: it appears to be almost always accompanied with a certain quantity of albumen, to which it has a decided affinity. The conformity of their solubility in water, and their insolubility in spirit of wine, as well as in other menstrua, is no doubt the cause, that hinders their separation, and prevents us from being able to gain such a knowledge of the red part of the blood, as might be acquired if we were capable of procuring it separate. We are of opinion, however, that iron is the principal matter concerned in colouring the blood; and that its solution in the blood is effected by means of a fixed alkali analogous to soda.

4. *Iron.* It is singular, that the red part of the blood alone contains iron. This metal, according to the experiments we have recited, appears to be held in solution by means of the alkali; and this solution, as we have said, produces the red colour: but what becomes of the iron, when it quits the blood, is a question, that chemistry has not yet been able to answer. Be this as it may, it must ever appear extraordinary, that the muscular substance, which is uniformly considered as wholly produced by the blood, does not contain the least atom of a metal, which exists in the fluid from which that substance is formed.

5. *Albumen.* As long as the blood continues unaltered, the albumen remains dissolved in the serum; but as soon as the least decomposition takes place in the blood, it is separated into two parts; one of which unites with the serosity, and imparts to it a sort of glutinousness; the other mixes with the fibrous substance and the colouring part. As its condensation, in this case, cannot have taken place but from the loss of a certain quantity of water in which it was dissolved, it acquires consistency, and shares it with the two substances with which it is found mixed. This condensation of the albumen contributes to the formation of the coagulum by means of the fibrous substance. It is proper to remark, that, as the condensation of the coagulum in this instance takes place spontaneously, and without the assistance of heat, it does not lose the property of being soluble in a fresh quantity of water: for this reason, also, the coagulum may be entirely dissolved in water, while the albumen, separated by means of heat or of acids, is no longer soluble in aqueous fluids. The soda, or fixed alkali, appears to contribute to the solubility of the albumen, which separates with the serosity. These two

substances

substances are in a sort of loose combination, it is true, since heat, spirit of wine, or certain acids, can destroy it, and disclose the albumen, which immediately loses the property of being soluble in water. When the albumen of the blood is compared with that of the white of an egg, and of other animal fluids, they are found to be perfectly similar: at least they display the same properties, and sulphur is found in them, the presence of which may be shown by the processes we have related.

‘ Of all the constituent parts of the blood the albumen is the only one, in which we have imagined we perceived any alteration, when we examined the blood of sick persons. This was chiefly observable, when the serum, that contained it in solution, was heated: in this case it never acquired that complete coagulation, which it did when the serum of a healthy person was treated in the same manner. A certain quantity of liquor separated from it, which it was easy to remove by simple decantation. We must add, however, that this remark is not peculiar to any one disease; at least, notwithstanding all our precautions, we have been unable to perceive any difference sufficiently obvious to be mentioned.

‘ 6. *Sulphur*. It is not easy to ascertain the state in which sulphur exists in the albumen; but it appears evident, that it is one of it's constituent parts. For the rest, as has been observed in this memoir, sulphur seems to act a considerable part in the animal economy; since, beside what is in the albumen of the blood, it is found in the bile, the brain, and all the fluids in general that contain albumen. It's state, in these different substances, is probably not the same as in the blood: but this subject has not been investigated. It would be well, however, if some one would undertake the inquiry; as the results of it would unquestionably enlighten the physiologist, and lead to the explanation of certain phenomena, for which hitherto no account has been given.

‘ 7. *Fixed alkali or soda*. This alkali always accompanies the blood. It's quantity is so considerable, that it may easily be obtained. One of it's principal offices, no doubt, is to promote the solution of bodies, which, if not acted upon by it, would remain insoluble, as iron, and the albumen. It is probable, too, that it is of more extensive use, from it's tendency to combination, and the property it has of imparting this tendency to those bodies with which it is united. It would be too bold to speak positively respecting the origin of the fixed alkali contained in the blood; but we presume it is one of the products of animalisation. The same may be said of the iron, sulphur, and neutral salts, which the blood, in every state, afforded us.

‘ 8. *Gelatin*. Many very celebrated physiologists have thought, that the blood contained a certain quantity of this substance. Rouelle, and other chemists, after having sought for it in vain, asserted, that it did not exist in it. Fourcroy affirms, however, that, by means of the processes we have described, he obtained it separate, and free from the mixture of any other substance. Aqueous fluids being it's natural solvents, it might be supposed, that the serum would retain it in union: that it remains confounded with the albumen, soda, and neutral salts: but it is easy to be separated, on coagulating

coagulating the serum. The method of obtaining it, as we have shown, leaves no doubt respecting its existence. The quantity of gelatin contained in the blood is inconsiderable; and for this reason, perhaps, it remained so long undiscovered. It is probable, that, in proportion as it forms, a part of it separates, which, with the fibrous substance, is destined for the fabrication of the muscular substance. Thus Hippocrates and Borden were not mistaken, when they said the blood was dissolved and fluid flesh; since the two substances that constitute flesh are found in the blood. The gelatin appears not to be affected by the state of disease; for we have found it possessed of all its properties, in every kind of blood we examined.

9. *Water.* The fluidity of the blood depends essentially on the water it contains. This facilitates the movement of its constituent parts, and fits them for entering into the composition of the different substances they combine to form. If water be a compound of hydrogen and oxygen, as is at present supposed, we may presume, that it is continually forming in the animal system; that, independent of the quantity necessary to impart fluidity to the blood, there is another quantity, which is decomposed during the act of circulation; and that the results of this decomposition contribute to repair the losses of fibrous substance, or of albumen, supposed to take place. The blood does not always contain an equal quantity of water; in consequence it possesses not always the same degree of fluidity: but this is certain, that no inference can be drawn from the more or less fluidity of the blood, respecting the healthy or diseased state of the person from whom it was taken; since, in our comparative experiments on the blood, in both states, we observed infinite variation.

In conclusion we repeat, every thing concurs to demonstrate, that the different constituent parts of the blood belong to this fluid, and are the produce of animalization. Thus the animal kingdom, as well as the vegetable, is capable of creating aroma or spiritus rector, essential oils, fat oils, and resins; alkalies, acids, essential salts, neutral salts, and earths; albumen, gelatin, the fibrous substance, sulphur, and iron. But what is the sublime art, which produces all these combinations? By what mechanism are these transmutations, assimilations, and modifications, continually carrying on with such harmony, both in the vegetable and animal economy? These are secrets, which nature has not yet allowed us to penetrate; these are problems of vegetation and animalization, which yet remain to be solved.

We must not quit this article, before we have presented our readers with the following curious note.

"I do not despair of seeing nails, and swords, and all kinds of iron implements, fabricated from human blood." Menghini. As iron is the symbol of strength, the whole that is contained in the blood of a man, if employed in eternalizing the memory of his talents and virtues, would excite lively emotions in the mind of sensibility. Becher had a similar idea, in recommending to friendship the vitrification of the bones of the deceased: but the precious remains of humanity would be too fragile in this form. Iron would constitute

constitute a much more durable memorial: with this a medal might be struck *, bearing the effigies of him to whom it once belonged. With what sentiments of veneration would kinsmen, friends, and fellow citizens, be inspired at the sight of such a relic !

The concluding article of this number is a *Description and Use of an Instrument for measuring with great Niceness the diurnal Variation and Dip of the Magnetic needle*, by R. Prony. We do not think this of sufficient importance to give our readers the whole of it, without which, and the accompanying plate, no account of it would be sufficiently intelligible.

BOTANY.

ART. III. Erlang. *Flora Indiarum Occidentalis aucta, &c.* The West-Indian Flora enlarged and elucidated, or Descriptions of the Plants mentioned in the Prodomus, by Olave Swartz, M. D. &c. Vol. I. 8vo. 642 pages. 1797.

The Prodomus of this work, which, we are told, entitles prof. S. to rank with Plumier, Sloane, Browne, and Jacquin, we have already noticed: [see our Rev. Vol. IV, p. 490.]

GEOGRAPHY.

ART. IV. Weimar. *Allgemeiner Blick auf Italien, &c.* A general View of Italy, with some geographico-statistical Essays respecting the southern Parts of this country, by E. A. W. von Zimmermann, Aulic Counsellor of the Duchy of Brunswic. 8vo. 190 pages. 1 plate. 1797.

More important information may be derived from this little tract, than from several bulky volumes. It contains, beside the general view of Italy, a winter's tour to the neapolitan saltpetre mines; experiments on the native saltpetre of the Pulo di Molfetta and Gravina, by Mr. Heyer; new instructions for the communities of the kingdom of Naples, respecting more accurate descriptions of the country; meteorological and economical observations on the year 1790, by the canon Giovene. At the conclusion of the instructive remarks on the phenomena observed, in the last mentioned essay, an interesting disquisition respecting the singular appearance termed *fata morgana* is given.

Mr. Z. promises us a larger work on Italy, the materials for which he has already collected on a tour through that country, and we hope he will not long delay it. *Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.*

ART. V. Königsberg. *J. G. Georgi Geographisch-Physicalisch und Naturhistorische Beschreibung des Russischen Reichs.* A Geographical

* Supposing a middle-aged healthy man to contain twenty-five pounds of blood, Menghini calculates, that he would afford seventy scruples, or near three ounces troy weight, of iron: our authors calculate two scruples of iron to a pound of blood, making somewhat more than two ounces to twenty-five pounds.

and Physical Description of the Russian Empire, by J. G. Georgi, Vol. I. 8vo. 377 pages, 1797.

ART. VI. Riga. *Historisch-statistisches Gemälde des R. R. &c.* A historico-statistical Picture of the Russian Empire at the Close of the Eighteenth Century, by H. Storch. Vol. I. 8vo. 600 pages. Vol. II. 650 pages. 1797.

In 1777 the cosmographical division of the academy of sciences at Petersburg formed the design of publishing a complete topography of Russia, and Pallas, Gueldenstedt, Lepechin, Bakmeister, Stritter, Georgi, and other academicians, undertook it's execution: but from the change of abode of some, and the death of others, the scheme miscarried. Messrs. G. and S. have now united in a similar plan; and from their long residence in Russia, and travels into it's remotest parts, we have reason to expect a full account of a country, which yet we know only in part. Mr. G. has prefixed to this volume an account of the materials from which he has derived his information; and there are among them many manuscripts, and a number of russian works, which are for the most part unknown to foreigners, or useless on account of the language. He promises to complete his part in three volumes; which, as well as the work of Mr. S., will form a distinct whole; though both must be taken together for a full account of the country.

Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.

CLASSICAL LITERATURE.

ART. VII. Basil. *Publi Terenti Afri Comædiæ sex, &c.* The Six Comedies of Terence corrected according to the best Editions. Large 4to. 451 pages. Price 15 r. 1797.

This is a proper companion to the splendid second edition of Brunk's Virgil, just published at Strasburg, and we doubt not proceeds from the same hand. The text of Bentley is chiefly followed, though not without variation; and equals in critical correctness the typographical beauty of the work.

Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.

ART. VIII. Leipzig. *Animadversiones et Lectiones ad Aristotelis Libros Rhetoricorum, &c.* Remarks on Aristotle's Rhetoric, with Corrections of the Text, by J. Severinus Vater, P. D. &c.: to which is added an Appendix by Fr. Aug. Wolf. 8vo. 234 pages. 1794.

To the admirers of Aristotle this will be a welcome present.

Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.

VOYAGES AND TRAVELS.

ART. IX. Stockholm. *Bref om Maroco, &c.* Letters on Morocco, by Olave Agrell. 8vo. 601 pages. 1796.

The writer of these letters was secretary to the swedish consulate at Morocco, and has lately been appointed a secretary to the king of Sweden. The information he gives appears to be authentic, and is conveyed in a pleasing style. On his way out he spent a little time

time at Gibraltar; of which place, and of the english there, he gives some account, as well as of some other parts of Spain, through which he passed.

Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.

BIOGRAPHY.

ART. X. Nuremberg. *Nachrichten von den Begebenheiten und Schriften berühmter Gelehrten, &c.* Accounts of the Lives and Writings of celebrated Men of Letters, by Fran. von Paula Schrank. Vol. I. 8vo. 426 pages. 1797.

This is intended in some measure as a continuation of Niceron's Memoirs of Men of Letters, and is executed in a manner that deserves approbation. Mr. S. intends to be particularly exact in mentioning all the works of the authors he notices, and to give some account of them.

Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.

MISCELLANIES.

ART. XI. Gotha. *Blicke in das Gebiet der Künste, &c.* A Peep into the Regions of Practical Philosophy and the Arts. 8vo. 251 pages. 1796.

The author of this interesting little work possesses a lively imagination, brilliant wit, mature judgment, and refined taste; and his knowledge of the world, and of human nature, with his enthusiasm for the good and beautiful, may enable him to render considerable service to the philosophy of common life. The present tract contains four essays. 1. On chastity in men. This is a valuable and masterly piece. 2. Musical fragments, with historical, practical, and polemical remarks. 3. On wilful injuries to public works of art. Letter the first. 4. Extracts from letters written on a tour through some provinces of Germany in the year 1793. These are little essays on various subjects, which arose out of occurrences on the tour.

Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.

ART. XII. Riga. *Texte zum Denken, &c. or Choix de Pensées mêlées, &c.* A Selection of miscellaneous Maxims, for the Use of those who know the World, or who wish to know it, with a german Translation, by Fr. Schulz. Vol. I. 8vo. 277 pages. Price 1 r. 8 g. 1796.

This is a very good collection from d'Aguesseau, d'Alembert, Bellegarde, Crebillon the younger, Duclos, Fontenelle, Pascal, Rousseau, and Voltaire, and the german translation is in general happy.

Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.

EDUCATION.

ART. XIII. Halle and Leipzig. Prof. Mangelsdorf has published a fifth volume of his Ancient History [see our Rev. Vol. xxv, p. 448], which comes down to the taking of Constantinople by the turks, and is written with the same spirit as the former.

Jen. Allg. Lit. Zeit.

FOR THE
ANALYTICAL REVIEW,
FOR NOVEMBER, 1797.

A
RETROSPECT OF THE ACTIVE WORLD:

OR,
A GENERAL REVIEW OF DISCOVERIES, INVENTIONS,
AND PRACTICAL CONTROVERSIES, AND CONTESTS.

IN tracing the action and re-action that subsist between opinions and affairs, it seems proper, as we have on former occasions observed, not only to give a summary view of the contents of books, but also of the conduct and course of education at

UNIVERSITIES and other famous seminaries of learning. If this position should be thought to require any proof or illustration, we might just mention the recent abolition of universities, and the establishment of central schools, throughout all the dominions of the french empire. This is a very instructive as well as important event: for it illustrates at once the origin, as well as the influence, of great and public seminaries of learning. They originate in the predominating passion of the times in which they were founded: in devotion; in chivalry, and ambition of conquest; or, in what is, at present, called philosophy; that is, a regard to the natural dignity and rights of human nature, in contradistinction to the prescriptive authority of priests and kings. From devotion sprung monasteries, and the offspring of these, universities; from chivalry and the ambition of conquests, various orders of knighthood, as well as military schools; and from political philosophy, as above defined, the central schools of France, instituted chiefly for the purpose of exterminating the remains of principles equally odious and formidable to the rulers of the state; and the propagation of those, on which they build their own support in power, and the permanency of the republic.

As every thing human is subjected to fluctuation and change, it is impossible to describe the present, without referring to the past and primitive state of any society; the principles that entered into their original constitution; and the incidents by which, in the course of time, they are varied. To discern the operation of such principles amidst the confusion of accidents, and the lapse of ages, forms the most instructive, and to an enlightened mind, the most interesting part of history. It is highly interesting to mark, in the donations of the roman emperors to the people of Rome, that spirit
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of rapine, and expectation of a share in plunder, which actuated the original founders of the republic. It is not certainly our intention, in this summary retrospect, to attempt the history of universities: though this is a subject of great curiosity, and not yet handled, as far as we know, in a worthy manner* by any writer. A brief sketch is necessary, and it may be sufficient for the present purpose.

The spirit of monachism is deeply rooted in human nature. Hermits are found in every age, and every quarter of the world; in China, India, Egypt, Syria, ancient Europe, the mohammedan as well as the christian world, at the present day, and even among the indians in America. Men naturally conceive, that they will become more acceptable, as more congenial with the purity of the divine nature, in proportion as they mortify their sensual appetites and passions, and become conversant with abstracted and spiritual objects. This natural sentiment, carried like others to excess, produces those acts of self-denial, which satisfy the devotees of temperate climates; but which, in the burning climates of Africa and Lower Asia, are carried to the height of self-excruciation. In ancient history we find cuttings of the flesh among the heathen nations; in the modern, the voluntary torments endured by dervises, faquirs, and bonzes.

First, the solitary hermit lives and converses only with nature, with God, and his own mind. But Elijah is joined by the admiring Elisha, a school is formed, and after many ages John the baptist teaches it's doctrines, and increases the number of it's disciples on the banks of the Jordan. Paul meets with Anthony in the deserts of Egypt: the reputation of both attracts new followers. Religious fraternities are formed. Companies of prophets retreat to the rocks and caves: and christian ascetics, associated by common principles and common leaders, retire in great numbers from cities and towns into solitary places, where they indulge, without interruption, all the mystical visions of disordered imagination.

The public admiration of such severe sanctity took these holy men under their protection. Emperors, kings, and opulent chiefs endowed monasteries, in every part of Christendom: and these became the great nurseries of the christian religion, which, with many of the usages of the heathen worship of God and the gods, had adopted the doctrines of Plato; though the christian doctors were divided among themselves by the subtleties and disputes of his commentators.

The first christians, admiring the sublimity and mysteriousness of Plato, who maintained an eternal, immutable, and even local existence of ideas, independent of the mind that perceives them, with that of various orders of spiritual powers, admitted his doctrines as agreeable to those of the trinity. But when the writings of

* Innumerable volumes have been written on the foundations of particular colleges; and registers or guides describing their buildings, institutions, customs, incomes, &c. We have not any general history of the whole, connecting them with the progress of society, and principles of human nature.

Aristotle, buried for ages, had been once discovered, his doctrines were generally adopted, as well as his method of reasoning, by Galen, Simplicius, Augustin, and others, in the end of the sixth, and beginning of the seventh centuries. The grand distinction between the doctrines of Plato and those of Aristotle, though each of the same, that is, the pythagorean school, is, that those of the latter do not draw so far as those of the former from matter: the aristotelians maintaining, that, although matter may exist without form, yet that forms could not exist without matter; and consequently, that the objects of the understanding enter into the mind at first by the senses. But it was not so much the opinions entertained by Aristotle on the sublimest subjects that drew the public assent, and admiration, as his method of investigating and communicating truth in general, respecting all the different objects of human knowledge. This it was that distinguished him by the appellation of *the master of arts*, and by way of eminence, the philosopher*.

In the first dawnings of knowledge in every country, there is no authority but that of the master. The accidental discoveries of the barbarian are employed for the purpose of gaining an ascendancy over the minds of his fellows; which, with the aid of various tricks and gesticulations, he improves into a superstitious veneration for his person, and an opinion that he holds an intercourse with the powers above. If this may be thought the first rudiments of priestcraft, it is, nevertheless, also, the first step towards schools of philosophy. On this head, it is sufficient, just to mention the oby-men of Africa; the spells and enchantments of Lapland, Finland, and all Tatar; the jugglers among all the native tribes of America. In those and all other countries, it is to *cunning men* that we are to trace the remote origin of philosophical, as well as of religious establishments. Barbarians view the acquisition of knowledge, not as an exertion of the intellectual powers, but a miraculous infusion of new light. Every thing is taught by way of mystery. In Greece there were, in the first stages of philosophy, *esoteric* and *eisoteric* doctrines, in all the different schools; all of which involved, or accompanied the communication of their particular tenets, with certain mysterious rites and ceremonies. Even in the school of Pythagoras, comprehending it's different affiliations, in different countries, no other argument was urged in support of any doctrine, than the *avtoç ισα* of the master. It was in this silent and submissive manner that Pythagoras himself learnt his doctrines in the colleges of Egypt, the doctrines of which concerning the unity of God, and the existence of different persons in the divine nature, as well as of various orders of spiritual powers, resemble those of the colleges of the indian bramins at this day; which doctrines in like manner are communicated only to the *initiated*, of their own caste, according to the different degrees of their advancement in knowledge, and mental purification. It is to the school of Pythagoras, that the

* 'Nihil in intellectu quod non prius in sensu.' This was the great maxim of the aristotelians. By the platonists it was reversed.

brotherhood of free-masons affect to trace the *arts and mysteries of free-masonry*. There is, perhaps, but little of the pythagorean philosophy to be discerned in the mysteries of masons: but this pretension is an undoubted monument, at least, of that mysteriousness in which the doctrines of the most ancient philosophy of schools were involved*. It is directly to our present purpose to dilate a little on the subject of free-masonry.

When the gothic and saracenic architecture, more complicated and difficult than the grecian, was introduced, in the sixth and seventh centuries, then societies of free-masons appeared in Italy, France, and in process of time all other parts of Europe. They travelled from place to place, as was common before the invention of printing in quest of knowledge †; and they had a word and sign, as at this day, by which they were readily known, though of different nations and languages to one another, in any part of the world.

As knowledge advanced, mystery gave way, both in ancient and modern times, and an appeal was made to reason and nature. ZENO Eleates traced the principles and consequences in a discourse; by ranging which in their natural order, he formed a basis for the art of logic: he introduced, in a kind of drama, two or more persons, who, by a course of questions and answers, reasoned methodically on all subjects: whence his logic acquired the name of dialectic; which name it retained after the form of dialogue was laid aside. This method of question and answer, probably copied from real conversation, had all the advantages of a collision of minds, and of viewing the same objects under different associations of ideas. It was, perhaps, not very different from lord Bacon's method of *questioning or interrogating* nature, by means of induction and literary experience. This simple mode of investigation became gradually embarrassed by various subtleties; nor did the art of logic assume a fixed and invariable form until Aristotle discovered a way of arriving at science, in a geometrical method, by the demonstrative form of a syllogism. This logic, as the experience of 2000 years has proved, is not much adapted to extend the boundaries of knowledge; but still it was of use as a preservative against error. It enabled men to prove arguments by a proper test, and to detect the fallacy of fashionable sophisms. Still however, as already observed, Aristotle's works being long concealed from the public eye ‡, the logic

* This quiet and passive manner of adopting opinions on authority and tradition, we do not wholly discommend. Many truths, above the comprehension of uncultivated minds, perhaps above the comprehension of any human mind, might thus have been handed down, from patriarchal and primeval times, when it is natural to suppose, as bishop Watson has well observed, 'there was a more direct communication than at present between the gods and men.'

† Thus also different crafts and corporations in Germany, at this day, require their members to travel for a certain period, in certain foreign countries.

‡ The mysterious, not to say illiberal spirit of the ancient schools, is strikingly exemplified by an apprehension expressed by even Alexander

logic of Zeno continued long in vogue, even after it was perplexed with a thousand quirks and subtleties.

In these circumstances, Epicurus, considering such a mode of investigation as equally troublesome and uncertain, proceeded in his speculations; first, by means of the senses, which he termed the first, and natural light of the world; secondly, reflections on the reports of sense: but these reflections were simple and obvious, and scarcely carried beyond intuitive judgments †. Convinced, that the common source of disputes was ambiguity of expression, he exposed all fallacious reasoning by a bare explication of the words in which it was involved. Men, he conceived, partaking the same common nature, must be affected in the same manner by the same objects, and consequently agree in the same sentiments, as soon as they distinctly comprehend each other's meaning ‡.

Though the ancient ages were discriminated from each other by many peculiarities of character and opinion, they may be arranged on the whole, with respect to the most material points, into the school of Pythagoras, with his two illustrious followers Plato and Aristotle, and into that of Epicurus. And these two schools are distinguished from each other; first, by the doctrines they taught; secondly, by the methods in which they displayed, and supported them. In other words, they are distinguished by their theories, and by their respective methods of exposition. The first believed in God, spirits, and an ideal world: the second referred every thing to matter and sensation; but, it is to be well marked, sensation internal as well as external. The platonists attempted to penetrate efficient causes, à priori, and to soar into their native heaven §, by the native vigour of their own minds. As material flame leads upward to the sun from which it comes: so the *intellectual* soul, for there were souls elementary, vegetative, animal, and rational, was proved to return, through various gradations, to the empyrean heavens, the substance and seat of intelligent natures. The epicureans clung to their parent earth, and treated every thing as visionary, that could not be traced to sense. The platonists, in a

Alexander the great, that the publication of Aristotle's works would open the gates of philosophy to all the world.

† We have formerly had occasion to remark a near affinity with the philosophical, brief nomenclature of a very ingenious speculator, and excellent citizen of this metropolis and country, who reduces the whole furniture of the mind to *sensations, re-sensations, pro-sensations, and co-sensations*, and the three souls of Plato, the *rational, the irascible, and the concupiscible*. We may here observe, that there is a still nearer resemblance between the leading notions of that gentleman, and those of Epicurus.

‡ Compare these notions with Mr. Locke's ideas of sensation and reflection; and with his copious discourse on equivocality of expression.

§ The souls of men they believed to be emanations from the great spirit of the universe, and to be of a spiritual and impassible nature, possessing the power of self-motion.

word,

word, were immaterialists and idealists; the epicureans, materialists and experimental philosophers. It does not appear, that Epicurus gave himself any trouble about any medium of communication between soul and body; which seem to have been considered by him as of a homogeneous nature. The spiritualists, or ideal philosophers, found it a hard task to connect the limits of the visible, with those of the invisible world. It was the doctrine of Aristotle, that, as our senses cannot receive external material objects themselves, they receive their *species*, i. e. their images or forms, without the matter, as wax receives the form of the seal, without any of the matter. Such forms, impressed on the senses, are called sensible species; on the memory and imagination, *phantasms*; on the pure intellect, *intelligible species*. The platonists, though they maintained the existence of eternal and immutable ideas, prior to the objects of sense, yet agreed with them in their notions concerning the mode in which external objects are perceived.

Having thus glanced at the grand doctrines of the ancients, and also at their methods of investigation, we have briefly to trace their vestiges, and, as it were, fate at the present day.

The doctrines of Plato concerning the existence, and even the local existence, of immutable and eternal ideas or forms, independent of the mind that perceived them, maintained possession of the schools, till the eleventh century, when a new doctrine, or, as some think, a doctrine borrowed from the school of Zeno, was proposed by Roscelinus, and soon after, very widely propagated over Europe, by the abilities and eloquence of one of his disciples, the famous Peter Abelard; who maintained, that there are no existences in nature corresponding to general terms, and that the objects of our attention, in all general speculations, are not ideas, but words. This doctrine, though controverted with great ability by Dr. Cudworth, Dr. Stillingfleet, Dr. Heylyn, the late Dr. Price, and other platonizing christians, is the doctrine that generally prevails, in these times, in all the public schools of Europe. The reverse holds in the braminical colleges of India, and the christian monasteries in different parts of Asia.

With regard to the next important point, namely, the manner in which truth or knowledge is received into the mind, there existed a great co-incidence of opinion among all the philosophers, until their doctrines on this subject were controverted, first by father Bouffier, in France, and afterwards, in a fuller manner, and more profoundly, by Dr. Reid, of the university of Glasgow.—Plato compares the process of the mind, in perception, to that of a person in a cave, who sees not external objects themselves, but only their shadows. Thus, also, Mr. Locke compares the human understanding to a closet wholly shut out from light, with only some little opening left, to let in external visible resemblances of things without. These resemblances, called by the ancients species, forms, and phantasms, since the days of Des-Cartes have been commonly called ideas, and by Mr. Hume, impressions. But all philosophers, from Plato to Mr. Hume, agree in this, that we do not perceive external objects immediately; and that the immediate objects of perception must be some image present to the mind. They all proceeded on a supposition, suggested by the phenomena of physics, that there must, of necessity, exist some medium of communication, between the objects
of

of perception, and the percipient mind; and they all indicate a secret conviction, in their authors, of the essential difference between mind and matter. The same train of thinking, which induced philosophers to entertain an opinion, that the qualities of external objects are perceived by means of images, or species transmitted to the mind by the organs of sense, led them also to suppose, that, in the case of all our other intellectual operations, there exist in the mind certain ideas distinct from the mind itself; and that these ideas are the objects about which our thoughts are employed: but, according to Bouffier, Reid, and their disciples*, we have not any ground for supposing, that in any one operation of the mind there exists in it an object distinct from the mind itself; or any thing corresponding to general terms, distinct from the individual objects to which these terms are applicable; and that all the common expressions, which involve such a supposition, are to be considered as unmeaning circumlocutions, which serve only to disguise from us the real history of the intellectual phenomena. This philosophy, which only marks the order of succession among our ideas, and the laws which regulate the phenomena of thought, without attempting to explain the nature of mind, and the origin of ideas, is that which is most prevalent, not only in the scottish schools, but, we are informed, among the studios, whose opinions have not been fixed by time, in both our english universities, and several masters of private academies. It also meets with a favourable reception in some circles both in France and Germany; though in the last country there is still an unfortunate tendency to the mysteries and chimeras of the pneumatology of the school-men. This system of experimental pneumatology was suggested by the general and happy prevalence of the baconian method of investigation, which, among other fruits, produced, a hundred years ago, the immortal system of Newton.

As Epicurus, wearied and disgusted at the quirks of the zenonian school, confined his speculations to the impressions of sense, and intuitive judgment: so, after a long lapse of barbarian and artificial darkness, men of sound and manly minds began to disregard and despise the jargon of the schools; to mark and record facts; and improve, by some easy experiments, hints suggested, occasionally, by the process of nature. The labours of alchemy, led to those of chemistry, well directed. Mathematics were gradually mixed and applied to physics. Friar Bacon arose, Galilao, lord Bacon, Kepler, Otto Guerick, with many others of illustrious name, and at last, the greatest ornament of human nature, sir Isaac Newton. Syllogistical sophistry, or rather a ludicrous mimicry of it, still disgraces some universities; and the dreams of idealists amuse others with a vain show of science: but the method of lord Bacon, and the newtonian system, recommended with irresistible force, by the consentient voice of all enlightened, sound, and candid minds, have made their way into all the nations of Europe, and into most protestant universities.

* The most illustrious, and justly celebrated of whom, is professor Dugald Stewart, author of Elements of the Philosophy of the Human Mind; and who seems to be to Bouffier and Reid what Abelard was to Roscelinus.

The followers of Leibnitz * and Boscovich † still maintain their ground in several universities on the continent; which will cease to be a wonder, when we reflect on the numerous disciples of professor Kant: but national prejudice, the fervour of novelty, and the pride of arbitrary theory, yield daily, and must continue to yield, to a method slow but sure, and that only follows, with modest assurance, the footsteps of nature. Experimental philosophy, uniting the cautious simplicity of Epicurus ‡, and the just, analytical method of the ancient geometers, with all the advantages arising from the recorded experience of ages, can never be superseded by any flight of genius, or any discovery of accident: since it pretends not to penetrate into efficient causes, but is contented to observe the phenomena of the material world, and ascertain the general laws, according to which they succeed to each other.

In future numbers we shall resume our present subject, and connect the history and present state of universities and other seminaries, with a summary view of the most recent vicissitudes and progress of the arts and sciences.

NATIONAL AFFAIRS.

THE FRENCH NATION, united by the interference of foreign powers, called to their aid the whole mass of their property and population; through the medium of assignats and requisitions. This violation of property and public credit, while it strengthened and confirmed the revolution in France, was not only a robbery of individual wealth in that kingdom, but an attack on the funds, and the public credit of all the other powers of Europe, and on the very existence of civilized society: the strongest cement of which is an inviolable regard to private property, and to the rights of independent nations. The french republic, it was foreseen and foretold, in order to exist, must conquer; and also that it would, by bribery, or by threats of exciting revolt and revolution, connect the continental powers, with whom it should be at peace, into instruments for extending their conquests. Three modes of conduct were proposed to Great Britain for calming the fury, or escaping the effects of that political hurricane. The first was, to leave it entirely to itself.

* Who accounts for all things by a supposed *raison suffisante*, or universal cause acting according to a pre-established harmony.

† Who, departing from the method of experimental philosophy, attempt to scan the essence of matter: which they suppose to be endowed with a principle not of attraction, but repulsion.

‡ Perhaps the merit of Epicurus, as an experimental philosopher, has not been duly attended to by the learned. To the instances above mentioned of the co-incidence of his way of thinking with that of modern experimental philosophers, we may add a comparison of his notion concerning the great importance of a just and accurate interpretation of language with the observation of Mr. de Condillac, so much admired by Condorcet, and other philosophers: 'Languages are true analytical methods—the art of reasoning is nothing more than a language well arranged.'

The marquis of Lansdown, Mr. Fox, and others, in speeches in parliament, and in publications from the press, predicted, that the french would only be rendered more compact and invulnerable by external compression; and denounced the evils to be apprehended from so numerous and ardent a people, in the centre of Europe, driven to the necessity of becoming a military republic. The second plan proposed was, that Great Britain, in conjunction with the confederated powers on the continent, should wage war with the usurpers for the restoration of monarchy. It was speedily found, that there was no solid bond of union among the confederates. Each seemed to pursue it's own separate views, of private jealousy, ambition, and interest. One member of the coalition dropped off after another. While the greater part of Europe preserves a smiling countenance, or lies crouching at the feet of France, the haughty republic, collecting her victorious troops, and rallying her broken and dispersed fleets, together with those of her allies, and the countries she has conquered, frowns hostile vengeance from her northern coasts, against her old, and still formidable rival, England. The coalesced powers, who never pursued their professed object with any degree of consistency or zeal, continued their random attacks, from other motives, after that professed object had become utterly hopeless. They seemed, indeed, to have no other plan, than to strike about them like blind men drunk; hoping that, according to the annual predictions of poor sir John Nivernois*, they would exhaust the resources of the republic at last.—The fault of this plan consisted in this, that it did not make any account of the natural fragility of confederations; that it had not, in fact, any definite object; that it proceeded on a mistaken notion of the strength of nations, which consists not, by any means, so much in pecuniary wealth, as in physical resources; and that, on the whole, it moved a power which it was neither able to control, nor in any respect calculated to divert and lay by management. Mr. Burke, the great drum-major of this military confederation, the extent of whose virtue and patriotism is illustrated by the late publication of M^cCormick, was rewarded with a pension, the liberality of which did more than counterbalance the title that had been bestowed, beside the pension, on the swiss gentleman.

The third plan, to which we allude, seemed to hold a middle place between the other two. It held out the sword in the one hand, and the olive branch in the other. It pressed the common enemy with the calamities of war; but it pointed out an easy road to peace on the basis of mutual advantage, but especially that of the french people. It displayed the calamities threatened to all government, all property, all civilization, all that is valuable in life, by the violation of property, in the forced circulation of assignats. It proposed to remedy this evil, by a military and financial combination between Great Britain and the continental powers, for supporting private property, public credit, and the rights of nations. It proposed to consolidate taxation with representation; to establish the liberty and the happiness of both the french people and the neighbouring nations, by rendering their government dependent on the voluntary contributions of the people, duly

* On whom our ministry, for humouring so agreeably their wishes and passions, bestowed both a title and a pension.

represented :

represented: in a word, to disclaim, expressly, all interference in the internal affairs of the republic, and to offer peace on such terms, as would both procure and perpetuate it: namely, to fund the debts incurred by the new government, and thus to turn the interest of the public creditors of France, and of the french armies, against the private views, or destructive ambition of the directory. Public credit is a general banker: the common banker of all commercial nations. It was a robbery committed on this banker, that formed the spring of the revolution; and if such robberies were not prevented, by a concert among the nations, they would do the same in future. In the manner proposed, the interests of all parties would be united*. It is now impossible to follow the first of these plans: the second has been followed most unfortunately: is it not yet too late to buy the third? and as is proposed, in the same plan, to form, in the present extremity, an union between Mr. Pitt and Mr. Fox. The former for finance, the latter for negotiation. On all such emergencies, the opposite parties in Rome united. In the extremity of fortune, the coalition of parties is held to be the consummation of political wisdom and virtue. An admirable speech, to this purpose, was made by lord Belhaven, in the scottish parliament, on the occasion of the union: having proved from history the maxim just stated, he warmly exhorted his countrymen, whatever they did, prudent, or even imprudent, to do it unanimously.

It has been commonly said, that Mr. Pitt, with one or two other members, were dragged into the war, against their judgments. Certain it is, that Mr. Pitt's admirable speech on the rejection of peace, by the directory, breathes sentiments of moderation, justice, and a respect to the rights of nations, in the strain of the plan last stated; and that care has been taken to have this speech translated into the french language, and circulated through France, and all the Continent. Why was not this done sooner? but, both in the american and present war we have always, in all our measures, been a day too late. It does not seem to be in nature, or in the destinies of empires, that states and princes, in general, should act with common prudence, or common sense.

SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.

THE spaniards, it is said, have refused a passage to the french through their country, which would undoubtedly produce a revolution, to Portugal; and that a concert is on foot between the courts of Lisbon and Madrid, who make, very wisely, one common cause, and Great Britain, for maintaining the independence of the Iberian peninsula. If this were not so perfectly wise, we should say it is very probable. There is a probable event, however, not depending on human wisdom, which will be very fortunate for Britain, and auspicious to the liberties of Europe. The prince of Brazil has not any children; a circumstance which may reunite the crowns of Spain and Portugal.

ITALY.

IN our last Retrospect, we dreaded the 'Address of Buonaparte in his endeavours to incline the emperor to a separate peace:' such

* See correspondence between a traveller and a minister of state, November, 1792. a peace

a peace he has effected, on the ground *probably* of maintaining the integrity of the german empire, and certainly, by compensating, to the house of Austria, the loss of Milan and the Netherlands, by Venice, with Istria and Dalmatia, as well as certain venetian territories on the side of Italy. It is probable, too, that the austrians are to be gratified with a part, at least, of Bavaria. Thus the dominions of Austria, by the accession of territory so situate, and a noble sea-port, are more compacted, and, to that house, more valuable than ever. Yet, in fact, at present, the french, posted in great naval strength at Corfu, command the trade and shipping of Venice. Though the cis-rhenane republic must be dropped; the cis-alpine republic, fortified by Mantua, will stand, and, perhaps, be extended over all Italy; than which nothing could be more fortunate for Britain. It is not, perhaps, the mere accident of war, that has led Buonaparte to pitch upon Milan, for the centre of a new roman commonwealth. Our reasons for thinking so we shall give to our neighbours in our next number.

GERMANY.

EUROPE looks forward to the congress, which is to settle the affairs of the empire at Rastadt. Will that congress be confined to Germany, or embrace, in it's regards, a wider circle? The

EMPEROR has now reversed his situation. He must now become an object of jealousy to the

NORTHERN POWERS,

Instead of countenance and support. Prussia, it would seem, is in a fair way, should a prince of character succeed to the throne, of farther aggrandizement and importance. Is not the present the most favourable crisis for the restoration of the stadtholder? The dutch must be sick of their new friends: and their respect for their old friends will not be diminished by the victory of lord Duncan. We feel sincere satisfaction at the kind treatment, in this country, of admiral Winter, and other dutch officers, now sent home, on their parole of honour. It would be, perhaps, equally generous, and sound policy, to give all the dutch prisoners the option, of either entering into the british fleet, or returning to their own country.

GREAT BRITAIN.

THE improvidence of our councils, and the adversity of events, have certainly involved a necessity of heavy, and even severe taxation. The late taxes rise, by a just gradation, from articles of primary necessity to those of luxury; but still, we wish, that the double assessment on houses could have been exchanged for some mode of an additional tax on land*, especially on those princely estates squandered away out of the crown lands, by the favouritism of the crown, in times of blind submission to every stretch of prerogative, on the part of the people.

* On this subject, we entirely agree in opinion with the author of "Essential Principles of the Wealth of Nations;" a serious refusal of which we recommend to all great land-proprietors, as well as ministers of state.